THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE
EIGHTH YEARBOOK

THE SUPERINTENDENT SURVEYS SUPERVISION

Bosmith

Department of Superintendence

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The Superintendent Surveys Supervision

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FOREWORD

"Supervision has for its object the development of a group of professional workers who attack their problems scientifically, free from the control of tradition and actuated by the spirit of inquiry."

HOW TO SECURE teachers who are awake to the changing social needs and who have a workable understanding of the increasing knowledge of how children learn and of child psychology, is the chief problem of a superintendent of schools. Naturally, then, supervision is a subject of vital interest to every superintendent of schools, since its chief function is the further training of teachers.

The Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, realizing the superintendent's responsibility for a program of supervision, adopted the following resolution on May 13, 1927:

> Resolved that it is the sense of the Executive Committee that the 1930 Yearbook shall deal with the subject of Creative Supervision in Public Education, and that the president be empowered to appoint a commission to prepare such a yearbook.

In accordance with the above resolution, Superintendent James M. Gwinn, then president of the Department of Superintendence, appointed the following Commission on Supervision: Albert S. Cook, *chairman;* Fred C. Ayer; Frank W. Ballou; Arvil S. Barr; Leo J. Brueckner; William H. Burton; Zenos E. Scott; I. Jewell Simpson; Charles L. Spain; and George D. Strayer.

This Commission held its first meeting in Washington, D. C., June 2, 1928. At that time it was unanimously agreed that the 1930 Yearbook should deal with supervision from the administrative standpoint, i. e., those phases of supervision which are of chief concern to superintendents of schools. It was agreed that the carrying out of detailed technics and particular methods is the concern of specialists—hence special phases of supervision should be left to the consideration of those who are actively at work in these fields.

It was unanimously agreed that this 1930 Yearbook, which was to be a survey of the administrative aspects of supervision, should be a unified report, representing the judgment and work of the entire Commission on Supervision.

After a full day's discussion, the following chapter headings were tentatively agreed upon, and the work of making preliminary drafts of these chapters was assigned as follows:

I. The Meaning and Necessity of Supervision—George D. Strayer and Zenos E. Scott
II. The Functions of Supervision—Charles L. Spain and Arvil S. Barr
III. The Duties of Supervisory Officers—Fred C. Ayer

IV. Types of Supervisory Organization—Arvil S. Barr and Charles L. Spain
V. Course-of-Study Making as a Factor in the Improvement of Supervision—Zenos E. Scott
VI. Training for Supervision—William H. Burton and Frank W. Ballou
VII. The Training of Teachers in Service through Supervision—Frank W. Ballou and William H. Burton
VIII. Supervisors' Conferences and Meetings with Teachers—Frank W. Ballou
IX. Creative Supervision—I. Jewell Simpson and Zenos E. Scott.

Preliminary drafts of these nine chapters were prepared and circulated among all members of the Supervision Commission for their criticism and review, prior to the second meeting of the Commission.

To secure material for the 1930 Yearbook, letters were sent to every member of the Department of Superintendence, asking for descriptions of programs for training supervisors in service. Deans of schools of education were asked to report all research studies made in the field of supervision. These requests met with a most hearty response. The Supervision Commission takes this opportunity of thanking all those who so generously contributed.

On January 11-12, 1929, the Supervision Commission met in Washington, D. C., for two full days, reviewing and revising the preliminary drafts. At this time, it was agreed that three additional chapters should be prepared, and the following assignments were made:

I. Evidences of the Value of Supervision—Leo J. Brueckner
II. Suggested Experimental Studies in Measuring Supervision—Leo J. Brueckner
III. The Planning of Supervisory Programs—William H. Burton.

Following this two-day meeting, those who had prepared preliminary drafts of each chapter revised them in the light of the criticisms which had been made. These revised chapters were again circulated among all members of the Supervision Commission. Then the Commission met for the third time in May, 1929, and spent four sessions or two whole days in reviewing and revising the manuscript. The changes suggested at this time were so many and so varied that it was agreed that after each chapter had been revised, it should again be circulated among all members of the Commission, and that the Commission as a whole should meet again for a final review of the revised manuscript. The fourth and last meeting was held in Washington, October 11-12, 1929.

These intensive and critical reviews of each chapter by the Commission as a whole and by each individual member make the 1930 Yearbook a unified report, representing the judgment and work of the entire Commission on Supervision.

Acknowledgment is due the Research Division of the National Education Association. Margaret Alltucker Norton, Associate Director of the Research Division, acted as secretary of the Supervision Commission throughout all its deliberations, carried on the correspondence with the cooperating school systems, and edited the entire Yearbook.

The problems of creative supervision, from the administrative standpoint, are many and varied. They deserve the continued thought and study of all superintendents of schools. This Yearbook makes a beginning. It sets forth progressive practices. These offer tentative standards and suggestions for developing teachers in service through creative supervision, thereby improving the educational opportunities offered our boys and girls. If it stimulates every superintendent to study the supervisory problems of his local school system, it will have served its purpose.

CONTENTS

The Superintendent Surveys Supervision

Chapter Page
I. The Meaning and Necessity of Supervision 9
II. The Functions of Supervision 14
III. The Duties of Supervisory Officers 19
IV. Types of Supervisory Organization 49
V. The Planning of Supervisory Programs 86
VI. Evidences of the Value of Supervision 98
VII. Suggested Experimental Studies in Measuring Supervision . . 141
VIII. Curriculum and Course-of-Study Making as Factors in the Improvement of Instruction 176
IX. Training for Supervision 207
X. The Training of Teachers in Service through Supervision . . . 263
XI. Supervisors' Conferences and Meetings with Teachers 297
XII. Creative Supervision 343

Official Records

Report of Executive Secretary 349
Report of Auditing Committee 360
Constitution and By-Laws 361
Calendar of Meetings 365
Members of the Department of Superintendence 369
List of Tables 465
Index of Names 467
Subject Index 469

CHAPTER I

THE MEANING AND NECESSITY OF SUPERVISION

FUNDAMENTAL *philosophy of supervision*—Supervision is a creative enterprise. It has for its object the development of a group of professional workers who attack their problems scientifically, free from the control of tradition and actuated by the spirit of inquiry. Supervision seeks to provide an environment in which men and women of high professional ideals may live a vigorous, intelligent, creative life.

There are those who emphasize the element of control in supervision. They point out the necessity for a certain degree of uniformity in order that children may move without difficulty through the school system or be transferred from one school to another. They stress the necessity for directing the work of teachers of little competence. They point out the need for providing, through our courses of study and curriculums, for certain experience and for the acquiring of certain skills and knowledge which should be the common possession of all.

One may grant all of these requirements without denying the fundamental obligation of supervision to provide for an intelligent and scientific attack upon the problems of teaching by those who are at work in the classroom. No one would propose that the freedom given to teachers be interpreted as a license to indulge in practices injurious to children. All will be willing to acknowledge the control of the science of education.

Supervision will always have as one of its chief obligations the further education of teachers. No one can enjoy the freedom characteristic of the highest type of professional work without having command of all of the scientific knowledge available. Only that person who has the greatest possible knowledge in the field in which he works can be called free. All others are certain to be controlled in some degree by superstitions or traditions. The supervisor's work is to develop with teachers the scientific attitude and to acquaint them as fully as possible with the results of scientific inquiry.

A sound supervisory program must be based upon a sound philosophy of education, but the meaning of education must be mastered by the teachers as well as by the supervisor. Supervisors may not hope to direct the work of teachers toward the accomplishment of the purpose which they have in mind unless these same teachers understand both the goal to be attained and the methods which promise to secure the desired results. In like manner, the results of scientific inquiry must be equally available both for the teacher and for the supervisor.

Throughout this Yearbook, it is the thought of the Commission that the development of competent, professionally trained workers will eventuate in improved classroom instruction, and that this in turn will, in time, eventuate in an improved society.

Proper induction of new teachers into the profession is aided by sound supervision—The necessity for competent supervision is everywhere apparent. We have in our schools throughout the United States many workers without adequate preliminary training. Even those who come into our profession from the best professional schools have only a beginning of knowledge or skill or insight or devotion to the profession which they seek to enter. It is the peculiar obligation of the supervisor to induct them into the profession.

Beginning teachers are apt to be harassed by the least important details of their work. They practice the art of teaching not infrequently out of an experience in the classrooms in which they were pupils. It is difficult for them to carry their philosophy of education or their knowledge of the science of teaching into their own classroom procedures. They become slaves to routine; they may not appreciate their own strength. Their professional life is dependent upon a sympathetic leader who guides, restrains, and stimulates them during their period of probation.

Growth of experienced teachers is advanced by sound supervision—Teachers who have been long in the service just as certainly need adequate supervision as do those who have recently entered the profession. All too often those who have achieved a certain degree of confidence rest satisfied with too meager achievement. Many men and women have entered the teaching profession with high enthusiasm, and lack the stimulus of high professional counsel and leadership. They have been overcome by routine. They have died professionally. What they needed was a supervisor to bring to them from time to time the result of scientific inquiry, to stimulate them to undertake experiments, to send them out into the school system in which they teach to observe the successes of others, to encourage them to become students of their own profession. So long as men and women of high intelligence devote their lives to the profession of teaching, just so long will there be an opportunity for devoted leadership in the field of supervision.

Supervision should not merely bring teachers devices of instruction, but it should also bring a recognition of the place of the school in society—The development of a system of public education which will meet the needs of our modern industrial society waits upon the cooperation of a group of supervisors and teachers thoroughly grounded in a philosophy of education which will make clear the ends to be attained, and controlled by the scientific spirit in the attack upon their problems. The more certainly supervisors come to think of their problems as involving the larger issue of the relation of the school system to our society, the less will they be satisfied with the mere consideration of the details of classroom procedure.

Supervision, while employing a well-rounded philosophy and scientifically tested knowledge, takes account of individual differences among teachers—Supervisors will expect and encourage that diversity in practice which is demanded by the special aptitudes, interests, and abilities of those who teach. Even in the case of those practices in teaching which are established upon a scientific basis, they will allow for the personal equation which will give vitality to the process. Good practice in supervision will mean for intelligent professional workers the development of a maximum of self-control and self-direction. Teachers will not feel that they are being subjected to external compulsion.

A supervisor should seek out the strong points of those supervised, build on these, and have faith in the ability of those supervised to advance—The meaning of supervision may be expressed in terms of the activities and attitudes of the supervisor. To inspire others to their best effort and to lead them in the scientific study of their problems implies dynamic leadership. A competent supervisor will have faith in those with whom he is associated. When one charged with supervisory responsibility proposes that progress cannot be made because of the limited ability of those with whom he is associated, he is confessing a lack of power to lead them. All leadership is based upon faith in one's colleagues. Whatever the ability of the teacher, he will respond by giving his best only to one who is able to see merit in the work which he does. All workers in our profession produce their best work under the inspiration of one who has faith in them. Appreciation of work already done is the foundation upon which the supervisor must build his ideal structure; and appreciation must be genuine if it is to produce the desired result. Flattery never helped anyone to do better work. The able supervisor has as a primary obligation the discovery of strength wherever it exists. He must stimulate and must expect growth even in directions little suspected by the individual with whom he works.

Supervision recognizes unusually good teaching procedures and interprets them as illustrations of sound principles of education—In every school system in the United States, there are teachers whose insight and achievement have been wasted because of lack of discerning supervision. It is the obligation of the supervisor to discover successful performances and to give them meaning by interpreting them in relation to the philosophy of education and to scientific inquiry. Many a teacher cannot reproduce his most successful performance, because it has not been clearly interpreted for him. The supervisor has an obligation to become sufficiently acquainted with the work that teachers are doing to discover whatever strength or skill they possess. It is possible that skill in one field of work can be transferred to another, if the teacher has been made conscious of the principle involved in his successful performance. It is quite as true that teachers can learn from one another through observation of work that is exceptionally well done. A very great increase in the efficiency of the work of any school system would occur if the successes of all teachers were made available for the whole corps.

Poor procedure by teachers calls for illustrations of successful procedure by supervisors, based on impersonal principles and ideals—Supervision must take account of failures as well as of successes. It is important that those teachers who violate established principles of teaching or of learning be criticized constructively by their supervisors. Success in this aspect of supervision will be determined largely by the degree to which the criticism is based upon principles and ideals and not upon personal relationships or prejudices. There is an obligation, wherever the teacher has failed, for the supervisor to present, both theoretically and through some sort of demonstration, the successful procedure.

The supervisor must adapt the application of scientific research to the capacities of individual teachers—Good supervision demands a scientific attitude on the part of the supervisor in dealing with teachers. Success will not be attained by handing to the teachers the results of scientific inquiry. It has to be experienced. The supervisor must expect to experiment in working with teachers just as certainly as this same spirit of inquiry is characteristic of the work which the best teachers do with boys and girls. The differences which exist among teachers must certainly be recognized. The type of work to be undertaken or the goal to be achieved must be adjusted to the capacity and enthusiasm of the individual teachers.

Goals will vary for individual teachers according to their capacities and present stage of development—Good supervision will not depend upon the counsel of perfection. Careful supervision will constantly set before the individuals concerned goals which are not too remote. The supervisor will propose, upon the basis of his appreciation of work already done, problems to be solved and work to be accomplished which lie just beyond the ideal which the teacher has set for himself. It will require an intimate knowledge of the work and ability of each individual supervised to adjust the work to be done to the varying personalities and abilities of each member of the group. For one, an experiment of very far-reaching significance will be clearly indicated; while for another, dark discouragement will result if the goal set is beyond that achievement which may be thought of as the next step in successful practice.

Supervisors cannot be expected to carry all responsibility for the improvement of teachers who work with them. Truly professional teachers will be interested in their own improvement. The supervisors may have an obligation to help them analyze their experiences in such manner as to discover both their strengths and their weaknesses.

The supervisor must encourage every teacher to attempt, on his own account, to improve his work. It would be the height of folly to propose that all improvement in teaching is to be thought of as dependent upon the insight and suggestion of the supervisor.

Something of the emphasis to be placed upon creative supervision as compared with mere inspection can be illustrated by the work which a good supervisor does in relation to the rating of teachers. Any sound rating scheme will allow for the individuality of the teachers rated. Passing judgment upon all of the factors which contribute to the efficiency of a teacher, and determining the degree of his achievement as compared with others are only the beginnings of supervision. In the light of whatever competence the teacher possesses, suggestions should be made which will lead to still greater achievement. Wherever there is weakness, there is opportunity for supervision to enter and help teachers to overcome their particular deficiencies. "Helping teachers" have always been welcomed by those whom they supervise.

The principles of good supervision apply to all individuals, whatever type or level of work they may be performing—Supervision may never neglect any individual nor belittle any part of the program of education offered in the school. The activities which must be carried on in a school system range all the way from the work of an attendance officer who delivers reluctant children to the school, to the work of the committee on curriculum construction that seeks to organize experiences for children throughout the school system. There is no activity that is not of first-rate importance. The supervisor has the opportunity and the obligation to utilize whatever ability that can be found among the members of the staff. It is important that everyone experience the satisfaction which comes from achievement.

Proper supervision results in some progress by all, and in much progress by the most able—The most important criterion by which the work of supervision may be judged is found in the answer to the query, "Have those who have been associated with the supervisor grown professionally?" It is not to be expected that all will have achieved great distinction, but the demand may well be made that as a result of supervision all teachers do better work and all are ready to accept greater responsibility. Possibly the most severe test that can be applied to the work of a supervisor is to ask in what degree the abler members of the staff have realized their highest possibilities under his leadership.

A professional spirit on the part of a supervisor will encourage a similar spirit on the part of those supervised—In the last analysis, the creative work of the supervisor will be measured by his devotion to the cause of education, expressed through productive scholarship and leadership. If his loyalty to this service controls his own activities, it will be found in the lives of those with whom he is associated. If he has given himself willingly and wholeheartedly to a study of the meaning of education in our society; if he is thoroughly conversant with the contributions of science to our profession, then he may ask for a like consecration upon the part of his colleagues. Great leadership is dependent upon social intelligence, professional scholarship, professional insight, and professional imagination. These are granted only to those who value the cause they serve above everything else. The supervisor may hope to provoke in the lives and the work of his colleagues no greater understanding or enthusiasm or idealism than that which controls his own. Just as the teacher should have a technic of teaching—so the supervisor should have a technic of supervision.

CHAPTER II

THE FUNCTIONS OF SUPERVISION

RELATION *of supervision to administration* [1]—In educational discussions as well as in practice, the term supervision is loosely used to include a variety of activities other than those which pertain directly to the teaching process. Thus we have supervisors of janitors, supplies, and buildings. While the functions performed by those who oversee janitors, buildings, and the purchase of supplies have many elements in common with the functions of those who supervise the process of instruction, in this chapter the term supervision refers to the more restricted connotation of the term—supervision of instruction.

In current practice, and in educational literature as well, there is much confusion of the terms supervision and administration. While, for the sake of clarity, it seems desirable to draw a line of demarcation between these two aspects of educational endeavor, such differentiation is by no means easy. Administration and supervision are in fact complementary activities. The supreme objective of each is the improvement of instruction.

Administration should provide situations in which both teachers and supervisors can work to best advantage. The administration is responsible, through the provision of plant, equipment, and personnel, for the organization of schools and of classes in which a variety of opportunity is provided. It is only when children are placed in such relationship to school opportunities as will make for their highest success that administration has properly functioned. Measurements of the abilities and the achievements of children in many school systems will discover one out of three of the pupils misplaced even with respect to the opportunities now available. Administration has the obligation not only to provide a better adjustment of opporities now available to the pupils, but also to study the need for variation and adaptations to courses of study and curriculums in the light of existing differences in ability, in achievement, in physical well-being, and in vocational outlook of the individual pupils who compose the school population.

Improvement of instruction, as improvement in any other field, must come about through the working of two types of forces—those which tend to consolidate and stabilize advances already made, and those which make for change. In a very real sense, both administration and supervision exemplify the working of these two forces in organized educational procedure. While good administration is essential to the maintenance of efficiency, it also inspires and stimulates desirable changes which make improvement possible. On the other hand, while good supervision seeks to promote improvement in instruction through constructive changes, it also is concerned with maintaining and rendering effective advances already made. It thus seems evident that administrative and supervisory efforts should complement each other in attaining a common end.

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[1] For a further discussion of the relation of supervisory and administrative duties see Chapter III, pp. 19-48.

Supervision analyzed into four major functions—As a basis for a more detailed consideration of its various aspects as they appear in practice in school systems large and small, it is desirable to analyze supervision functionally. Such analysis is an aid to clear thinking and makes the meaning and purpose of the technic of supervision more intelligible.

Fundamentally, the functions of supervision are either creative or directive. They have been variously grouped by experts in the supervisory field, but for the purpose of this analysis they may be classified under the following captions: (1) Inspection, (2) Research, (3) Training, and (4) Guidance.

1. Inspection—A Function of Supervision

By inspection is meant the survey of classroom teaching and the school system as a whole, the equipment, the means of instruction, the service, the personnel, the pupils, or any other items of detail, to ascertain how efficiently instruction is being given. The means of securing information may be by visit, by general report, or by measurement. Detailed information relative to present attainments is essential to future progress. There is also an unmistakable tendency to make this information relative to instructional conditions increasingly exact. Subjective means of evaluation are gradually giving way to the more objective types of evaluation wherever new objective means of evaluation have been developed. Standard tests, rating schemes, and various objective devices are now available to teachers and supervisors who desire more exact information about instructional conditions.

Exact information about present accomplishments, when viewed in the light of current standards, supplies data essential to impartial evaluations, and sets problems for future investigations and growth. Effective inspection should reveal defects in instructional procedure as well as points of particular excellence. Data gained through inspection may form the basis of a corrective or constructive program or may merely indicate what progress has been made in response to previous constructive effort. Through inspection the supervisory agent should be able to diagnose conditions and discover problems which press for solution.

2. Research—A Function of Supervision

Research is a systematic critical investigation seeking facts or principles. Its purpose is to discover, clarify, and isolate problems; and to collect, organize, and interpret facts; to formulate hypotheses, and to test them and appraise their value.[1] Research is a creative function. If it may be assumed that true progress must come through a knowledge of facts scientifically obtained, then all curriculum construction and revision, and all improvement in materials, technics, and methods of instruction must be the outcome of research. Only through this means can we evaluate the instructional process, keep it responsive to social needs, and in harmony with the growth of scientific knowledge.

The agent who carries on creative supervision should be at all times an expert, should know his field thoroughly, and should be able to stimulate others to constructive effort. It is his province to discover opportunities for improvement in materials and methods of instruction; to collect, digest, consolidate, and publish valuable data; to experiment with methods and materials of instruction which appear to be better than those in use; to measure results; to set up tentative standards and objectives; and to formulate the results of his investigations in such definite and practical terms that administrators and directors of instruction can use them.

3. Training—A Function of Supervision

The effective exercise of the functions of inspection and research in any system should yield a product of materials, technics, and methods which will form a valid basis for the exercise of the third function—training. The term training is here used in a broad sense. In the performance of the training function, the supervisory agent places his expert knowledge, power, and skill at the service of any person in the system who is attempting to carry out the instructional policies of the administration. This assistance may be from superintendent to principal, from principal to teacher, or from supervisors to teachers, principals, and other administrative officials.

The training program concerns itself with keeping the personnel informed and practiced in best educational procedures.

An important prerequisite of progress is the development of a favorable attitude of mind on the part of those concerned directly with the problems of administration and instruction; an attitude responsive to change; a state of mind hospitable to new ideas and methods; a willingness to cooperate in utilizing the creative contributions of the system. With such a favorable background, improvement in instruction only awaits the creative and constructive effort of those who have the vision and knowledge to promote a forward-looking program. Without it, a program of improvement, although scientifically planned and intelligently presented, will progress but slowly.

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[1] According to Woody, (Clifford Woody, "The Values of Educational Research to the Classroom Teacher," *Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. XVI, October, 1927, pp. 172-8):

> Research comprises defining and redefining problems; formulating hypotheses or suggested solutions; collecting, organizing, and evaluating data; making deductions and reaching conclusions; and at last carefully testing the conclusions to determine whether they fit the formulated hypotheses.

Charters makes a clear distinction between pure research and practical research. He states that pure research consists of only two steps, selecting a problem and applying scholarly methods to its solution. According to Charters:

> In practical research there are five steps: (1) A going concern is studied, measurements made, and points of weakness discovered. (2) Some one of these weaknesses is selected for investigation. (3) Then follows solution in the laboratory. (4) This is succeeded by the step of installation in which modifications must be made so that the solution will work in practice. (5) Finally, the solution must be maintained by placing it into the organization so that it will become a permanent part of the system.

For a further discussion of, What is educational research, see: Monroe, Walter S., *Ten Years of Educational Research, 1918-1927,* Chapter I. Bulletin No. 42, Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1928.

In practice, training may take the form of: (1) Conferences with individual teachers during which there is free interchange of ideas and analysis of individual problems; (2) meetings with experimental groups of teachers selected for their creative ability; (3) group meetings of teachers for the observation and discussion of demonstration lessons in which the ideas of the supervisory agent are exemplified under practical conditions; (4) visits to classrooms, preferably on invitation, for the purpose of diagnosing difficulties, making suggestions, or giving instruction through demonstration. The ideal supervisory agent visits teachers avowedly as a service agent, ready to aid, to guide, and encourage rather than as one who comes to criticize, to censure, and perhaps to rate; (5) the distribution of instructional aids such as bulletins, type lessons, and references for reading and study; (6) the organization of extension classes to supplement other training procedures. Every forward movement in a school system necessitates a readjustment in the viewpoint and methods of teachers. For this reason formal classes for training are desirable in which teachers in service as well as prospective teachers may broaden their professional outlook and harmonize their theories with changes which are going on in education.

4. Guidance—A Function of Supervision

After the materials, technics, and methods of instruction have been evolved through experimentation and research, and supervisors, principals, and teachers have been made familiar with them through the various training agencies just discussed, there remains the fourth function—guidance. Research and training programs must produce an outcome in the form of better instruction. That this result may be realized, some agent must assume the guidance of instruction. This agent, usually the building principal, must provide the materials, physical setting, and guidance prerequisite to effective classroom work. In the performance of this function, the person in charge supplements a teacher's previous training: (1) By providing him with special information relating to his immediate problems; (2) by furnishing him suitable materials for instruction; (3) by helping him to measure the achievement of his pupils, to diagnose their difficulties, and to apply suitable remedies; (4) by supplying standards by which he can judge his own efficiency; (5) by diagnosing his failures; (6) by suggesting remedial measures; (7) by appraising his final success or failure. The exercise of the guidance function is necessary if the teacher in the classroom is to attain and hold the advanced ground for which research and training have paved the way.

Additional supervisory functions which aid in the improvement of instruction—Supervisory officials are frequently called upon to assist in the selection of textbooks, in the preparation of standards for the purchase of supplies and equipment, and in the planning of buildings. Such activities, while not readily classified under the captions used in this chapter, are related in an important way to the problem of instruction and, if properly carried on, may be an aid in improving instruction. It would seem that supervisory officers may with propriety be asked to carry on the researches necessary to the scientific formulation of standards for textbooks, equipment, supplies, and buildings, but that the actual decisions as to these matters is an administrative function and should be performed by an administrative officer.

Allocation of supervisory functions—If the functions here outlined are valid and sufficiently inclusive, they all should be exercised in some degree, by someone, in every school system, large and small. In a very small system the superintendent may in turn carry on inspection, research, teacher training, and guidance. If he is efficient he must be able to assume all of these roles. The large city system offers the best opportunity to exemplify the functions herein described, because administration, supervision, and instruction are more clearly differentiated, and the several functions of supervision in the main are performed by different individuals.

Need for proper balance between various supervisory functions—Prevailing practice in the organization of supervision is far from uniform, but in all systems the essential functions of supervision are being performed in some measure. Whatever the procedure in a given school system may be, no one function should be emphasized to the disadvantage of others. Over-emphasis on the creative and experimental side without proper attention to teacher training and guidance makes for vagueness and instability of product. Under these conditions instruction presents the formal aspects of progress without the substance. On the other hand over-emphasis on guidance without a reasonable program of research and teacher training results in a dead, static system in which changes, if they come at all, come slowly.

In an ideal situation the functions of supervision would be in balance; inspection, research, training, and guidance working in perfect harmony. Inspection will discover the defects to be corrected, as well as those procedures which merit encouragement. Research will reveal the principles which make for improvement. Training will familiarize teachers with these principles. Guidance will provide the inspiration and material environment necessary to their incorporation in practice. Inspection then will play its part again to be followed by further research, teacher training, and guidance.

CHAPTER III

THE DUTIES OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

NEED *for definite consideration of supervisory duties*—For effective planning in programs of supervision, it is essential to take into account the actual duties which supervisory officers may be called upon to perform in the course of their official activities. Whether the particular objective of supervisory planning be the preliminary training and selection of supervisors, the lay-out and assignment of work to special supervisory officers, or the ultimate checking of supervisory activities and efficiency, it is of distinctly practical advantage to have clearly in mind a comprehensive list of possible supervisory duties. Such a list may be derived either from a canvass of duties which apparently successful supervisors are known to perform, or it may be based upon theoretical considerations of the proper duties which supervisors ideally ought to perform. In either case, the consideration of duties lends needed objectivity to supervisory planning.

It is the purpose of the present chapter to consider the particular duties which enter into the work of supervisors, placing emphasis upon the scope and variety of duties, and giving special attention to the intimate relations which so-called supervisory duties bear to administrative interests on the one hand and to instructional interests on the other. The data and materials which bear upon supervisory duties will be presented under the following headings: (1) the relation of supervisory and administrative duties; (2) the supervisory duties of administrative officers; (3) the duties of special supervisory officers; and (4) practical considerations.

I. The Relation of Supervisory and Administrative Duties

Confusion between supervision and administration—In making a study of supervisory duties, the investigator is early confronted by the fact that a considerable amount of confusion and overlapping exists between the conventional meanings assigned respectively to supervision and administration. The confusion is due to a fairly general lack of agreement as to the exact nature and scope of supervision. The overlapping is due to a genuine similarity in the activities carried on by supervisory and administrative officers. Inasmuch as educational situations are continually arising in which the functions and duties of supervisors and administrators are brought into intimate relation, it will be profitable to review briefly the development of supervision which has led to the present situation.[1]

The rise of supervision—Unfortunately, from the point of view of clarity, supervision is a term which has been used in many different ways in the field of education. One of the first technical uses of the term supervision was in connection with the personal control exercised by instructors over students in the early teacher-training institutions and in connection with the relations set up between teacher and pupils in the several pupil-teacher apprenticeship plans of teacher training which were popular in the first half of the nineteenth century. The term supervision was also frequently associated at about the same time with the general administrative oversight which was exercised over public school teaching by legally appointed officers. This type of general supervision was exercised first by school boards as a whole, and later on by their specially appointed executive officers, the movement culminating in the rise of the office of superintendent of schools. At the outset, little discrimination was made between the two terms, administration and supervision, but as time passed school boards and superintendents gradually came to perceive the value of what was called professional supervision and to think of it as a special function more or less distinct from other administrative duties. The older idea of a personal relationship involving the superintendent as overseer and the teachers as learners was included in the new concept of professional supervision, but the general notion of supervision as a distinct if not separate function spread rapidly from this time on.

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[1] A more extended treatment of the rise of supervision may be found in Ayer, F. C., and Barr, A. S., *The Organization of Supervision*, Chapter I, pp. 1-37. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1928.

The functional concept of supervision as a distinct field of service was strengthened by the incorporation of the special subjects, such as drawing and music, into the public school curriculum and the selection of separate officers known as special supervisors to supervise these new studies. These officers centered their efforts on the improvement of teaching and gradually came to be thought of as instructional experts rather than as administrative officers. On the other hand, the rise of the building principal in medium and large-sized cities as an instructional supervisor headed off the movement to develop a separate set of officers to carry out the function of supervision. Special supervision eventually spread to other subjects, and general supervisors came into existence in many cities; but, with the exception of certain large cities, supervision is still largely in the hands of administrative officers, notably the superintendent of schools and the building principals. Professional supervision, however, in contrast to general administrative supervision, has come to claim a distinctive place in the literature of education, and it will be well at this point to consider its special function in connection with the broad field of general educational administration and the general duties of public school administrators.

School administration is, in its more general aspects, a much broader term than school supervision. Administration, properly conceived, has to do with the general control and operation of the entire educational program. It involves the legal basis upon which the school program is operated; the organization of its numerous factors into an effective machine; the financing of its extensive operations; the officering of its business and instructional staff; the supervision of its contributory activities; and the accounting of its cost and progress. In the midst of these major functions, professional supervision is an activity which has to be administered as such, but which is a part of and not distinct from the general administrative program. Any attempt to draw a clear line of demarcation between administrative duties and supervisory duties must of necessity depend upon restricted definitions of administration and supervision. As a matter of fact, the concept of professional supervision has been enlarged so greatly in recent years that it now reaches out into practically every aspect of administration. Limited at first to matters directly associated with classroom teaching, supervision has been extended to involve the entire field of learning and teaching conditions. As such, it is as impracticable to separate supervision from administration as is the frequent attempt which is made to separate the business and educational activities of a school system into two distinct fields of service. Separation in either case is a matter of convenience, not of functional difference.

Creative versus administrative supervision—A number of attempts have been made to distinguish between the administrative and creative aspects of supervision. An elaborate illustration of this type may be taken from the Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools.[1]

> Instruction of the children is the supreme function in public education. All other activities essential to efficiency of instruction must be considered primarily as adjuncts to the instructional activity. The instructional activity from an organization standpoint is conceived as possessing two aspects: (1) administrative supervision and (2) creative supervision. Administrative supervision deals with the direction of achievement and the maintenance of current standards, while creative supervision is concerned with improvement of achievement and progress in standards.

The general supervisory duties of a director of instruction in charge of creative supervision are given as follows:[2]

1. Discovering, formulating, and solving instructional problems.
2. Constructing the course of study.
3. Devising, testing, and selecting methods of teaching.
4. Formulating tests and methods of measuring the efficiency of instruction.
5. Determining the degree of efficiency to be adopted as standard.
6. Formulating standards of equipment, supplies, and organization.
7. Formulating methods of diagnosis and methods of remedying specific defects.
8. Rendering assistance "upon call," i. e., when and where requested to do so.
9. Doing such experimental and pure research work as may be necessary for the ultimate improvement of instruction.
10. Search for "high spots" in his own and other school systems and from other sources; digesting reports of "low spots" and "high spots" from his own and other school systems; formulating items of value for transmission to the system, and presenting the same to the administrative officers.
11. Appraising the instructional effects of the work of other departments and making suggestions to the superintendent for the improvement of the work of other departments as it affects his own specific work.

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[1] *The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools,* Research Series No. 2, p. 141. Public Schools, Hamtramck, Mich., 1927.

[2] *Ibid.,* pp. 142-3.

In contrast to the foregoing duties of creative supervision the duties of a principal which pertain to administrative supervision are given as follows:[1]

1. Knowing what the course of study contains.
2. Knowing the degree of efficiency in putting into effect the course that has been adopted as standard.
3. Knowing the standard method of achieving standard efficiency.
4. Knowing the standard equipment, supplies, and organizations related to above.
5. Directing teachers in putting the above into effect.
6. Measuring the actual efficiency of instruction achieved.
7. Locating low points, diagnosing causes, and applying remedies when this is possible.
8. Calling for assistance from directors of instruction in diagnosis and remedial work when needed.
9. Locating and reporting "high spots."
10. Discovering, formulating, and reporting difficulties or problems in need of scientific investigation.
11. Making suggestions for the possible improvement of instruction.

The Hamtramck plan is quoted here primarily as an illustration of the far-reaching and overlapping nature of supervision.

Supervision and administration as classified in time studies—Attention should be called at this point to the fairly common practice followed in making time studies [2] of the work of administrative officers. This plan divides the duties of the public school administrator into such minor categories as administration, supervision, teaching, clerical services, community relations, and professional improvement. An examination of the leading time studies shows that, despite wide variations in the method of classification, it is a common practice to allocate to the field of supervision those duties which bear directly upon the improvement of teaching and to restrict the duties of administration to activities dealing with the care of the school plant, business affairs, discipline, extra-curriculum activities, child accounting, health work, special programs, and in general those activities not included in the other categories listed in the study. As a result of such restricted definition and arbitrary separation of supervision and administration, certain duties are very difficult to classify. Anyone who has ever attempted to organize such a time study or who has tried to distribute his own working time into the various categories indicated is well aware of the large number of duties which fit with equal appropriateness into more than one of the main divisions. The duties that occasion the greatest difficulty in separate classification are those which pertain to the work of testing, child accounting, curriculum construction, selection and welfare of teachers, and the handling of textbooks and supplies. Here the natural overlap between the so-called supervisory and administrative fields is so great that practically any system of separate classification breaks down.

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[1] *The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools,* Research Series No. 2, pp. 143-4. Public Schools, Hamtramck, Mich., 1927.

[2] See, for example:

Bates, Guy, "Functions of the Elementary School Principal," *Journal of Educational Method,* Vol. IV, January, 1925, pp. 178-84.

Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship,* Seventh Yearbook, Chapter V, pp. 204-9. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1928.

Dyer, W. P., *Activities of the Elementary School Principal for the Improvement of Instruction,* pp. 59-70. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

Hampton, W. O., *How Public School Principals Use Their Time,* Doctor's Dissertation, University of North Carolina, 1926.

Hughes, C. L., "The Functions of the School Superintendent in Theory and Practice," *American School Board Journal,* Vol. LXVII, October, 1923, pp. 40-2.

McClure, Worth, "The Functions of the Elementary School Principal," *Elementary School Journal,* March, 1921, Vol. XXI, pp. 500-14.

The relation of administrative and instructional supervision—In concluding this section, attention is called to the fact that supervisory activities which are very similar in nature grow out of both administrative and instructional situations. This fact is well illustrated by the three sets of duties listed in Table 1, which have been taken from various analytical studies of the duties of administrative and supervisory officers. Table 1 includes ten sets each of three similar or related duties which bear upon the improvement of instruction, each set being taken from a different aspect of the general educational program. The duties are arranged in three parallel columns, the first column containing duties which arise from purely administrative situations, the third column containing similar or related duties which arise directly from instructional situations, and the second or middle column containing duties which arise from overlapping or coordinate situations. The table as a whole shows the very broad scope and interrelated character of duties which are involved in the improvement of instruction.

TABLE 1.—RELATED SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES RISING OUT OF ADMINISTRATIVE, INSTRUCTIONAL, AND COORDINATE SITUATIONS

I. Administrative Situations	II. Coordinate Situations	III. Instructional Situations
1. Select textbooks	Rate textbooks	Recommend textbooks
2. Organize schools and classes	Classify pupils	Adapt courses of study to needs of pupils
3. Determine curriculum	Construct courses of study	Interpret courses of study
4. Employ teachers	Inspect teaching	Criticize teaching
5. Advise teachers as to school board policies	Prepare a teachers' handbook	Advise teachers on professional conduct
6. Keep office hours for conferences	Confer with teacher over discipline	Confer with teacher over methods
7. Establish uniform marking system	Examine teachers' marks	Improve written examinations
8. Determine budget for supplies	Standardize supplies	Suggest proper use of supplies
9. Finance a professional library	Organize a professional library	Direct professional reading of teachers
10. Organize testing program	Administer standardized tests	Help teachers provide for individual differences

II. The Supervisory Duties of Administrative Officers

Extent to which administrative officers should participate in supervision—The rise of supervision has been characterized by a rapid increase in the number and scope of the duties which pertain to the improvement of instruction. One of the most important problems in the organization of supervision relates to the personal participation of administrative officers in supervisory duties. How much of his total time should an administrative officer devote to supervision? What particular supervisory duties, if any, should he perform in person? It is impossible to answer these questions with anything like finality at the present time. In lieu of such positive evidence, we may best turn to the standards of professional judgment and conventional practice. Here we find a number of studies which bear directly upon the problem either (1) concerning the proportionate amount of time which should be given to supervision by administrative officers, or (2) relating to the particular duties which should be performed by administrative officers. In considering these two aspects of the problem, the discussion will be limited to the following administrative officers: elementary school principals, high-school principals, and superintendents of schools.

The elementary school principal as a supervisor of instruction—A number of investigations have been made to ascertain the relative amounts of time which administrative officers actually give to supervisory duties. As indicated in the previous section, discrepancies in the method of defining supervisory duties invalidate these studies to a certain degree, but they are sufficiently accurate to disclose important tendencies. In this respect the supervisory activities of the elementary school principal have received the most attention. A review of the various studies which have been made of the distribution of the elementary principal's time is given in Chapter V of the *Seventh Yearbook*[1] of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association. The actual distribution of the elementary principal's school day appears here as Table 2, which is patterned after Table 31 of the *Seventh Yearbook.*

It may be seen from the data in Table 2 that the average amount of time which principals give to supervision varies according to different studies from 15 percent to 36 percent. In the majority of cases, it is considerably less than the time devoted to the so-called administrative duties. It should be kept in mind, however, that a considerable number of the administrative duties bear more or less directly upon supervision. Hampton, for example, reports the administrative activities of principals relating to supervision as consuming 7.57 percent of their total time.

The relative amount of time which, according to the judgment of various experts, elementary principals should ideally devote to supervision is shown here in Table 3, which is patterned after Table 34 of the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals. The ideal time ranges from 31 to 51 percent of the principal's total time. According to the judgment of experts principals should devote more time to supervision than they now do under the present practical conditions. The amount of time devoted to administrative duties, on the contrary, apparently should be reduced.

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[1] Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship*, Seventh Yearbook, Chap. V, pp. 204-9. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1928.

The data presented in Tables 2 and 3 indicate present conditions and theory with reference to the distribution of the elementary principal's time. These figures, however, are average figures and should not be set up as a

TABLE 2.—THE PERCENTAGE OF THE ELEMETARY PRINCIPAL'S TIME GIVEN TO SUPERVISION AND OTHER DUTIES, ACCORDING TO ELEVEN DIFFERENT STUDIES

Source of Data	Supervision	Administration	Clerical Duties	Teaching	Other Duties
Seventh Yearbook[1]	34	30	19	4	13
Crouch[2]	34	34	13	9	10
Bates[3]	36	51	10	0	3
Benson[4]	34	40	13	0	7
Kuehny[5]	24	43	31	0	2
Martin[6]	20	39	6	23	12
Morrison[7]	15	16	12	52	5
Flowers (Baltimore)[8]	30	41	21	3	5
Flowers (other cities)[8]	30	45	16	2	7
English[9]	26	44	10	10	10
Hampton[10]	20	65	8	4	3

[1] Department of Elementary School Principals, *Seventh Yearbook*, p. 205, Table 29. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, April, 1928.

[2] Crouch, Roy, "Status of the Elementary School Principal," Chapter II, *Fifth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, July, 1926. Computed from medians of total distribution, Table 50, p. 251.

[3] Bates, Guy, "Functions of the Elementary School Principal," *Journal of Educational Method*, Vol. IV, No. 5, pp. 178–84, January, 1925.

[4] Benson, J. R., "The Division of the Principal's Time," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXVII, No. 2, October, 1926, pp. 94–100.

[5] Kuehny, M. S., in *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, October, 1925. Adapted from Table 1, p. 45.

[6] Martin, W. H., unpublished study of New England principals, 1925—adapted with approval of author. Percentages distorted by inclusion of data on teaching principals.

[7] Morrison, J. Cayce, *School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages*, Contribution in School Administration, No. 2, Ohio State University, 1926; Table 35, p. 43. Includes data on teaching principals.

[8] Flowers, Ida V., "The Duties of the Elementary-School Principal," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXVII, No. 6, February, 1927, pp. 414–22.

[9] English, Mildred, in *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, October, 1927. Adapted from Table III, p. 13.

[10] Hampton, W. O., dissertation for doctorate, *How Public School Principals Use Their Time*, University of North Carolina, 1926, Table X.

TABLE 3.—IDEAL DISTRIBUTIONS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S SCHOOL DAY

Source of Data	Supervision	Administration	Clerical Duties	Teaching	Other Duties
Seventh Yearbook[1]	51	25	6	6	12
McClure[2]	40	20	10	0	30
Bates[3]	46	22	7	0	25
Morrison[4]	38	22	9	21	10
Martin[5]	31	33	2	5	29
Average	41	24	7	6	21

[1] Department of Elementary School Principals, *Seventh Yearbook*, p. 207, Table 33. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, April, 1928.

[2] McClure, Worth, "The Functions of the Elementary School Principal," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXI, pp. 500–14, March, 1921.

[3] Bates, Guy, "Functions of the Elementary School Principal," *Journal of Educational Method*, Vol. IV, No. 5, January, 1925, p. 182.

[4] Morrison, J. Cayce, *School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages*, Contribution in School Administration, No. 2, Ohio State University, 1926, p. 44.

[5] Computed from supplementary data submitted with Martin's study of New England principals. See Table 2.

standard to be followed blindly. Moreover, the difficulty of distinguishing between supervisory and administrative duties must be taken into account. The principal should be placed in a position so that he can distribute his time wisely, but the actual amount of time given to supervision will depend materially upon the number and kind of teachers employed, the amount of assistance to be derived from other supervisory officers, and the demands of other executive duties.

The high-school principal as a supervisor of instruction—Eikenberry[1] found that the most important activity of the high-school principal from the standpoint of time spent was teaching. The median time of teaching for schools of all sizes was 138 minutes, or 37 percent of the total school day. The second most important activity was routine office work, with a median daily time expenditure of 40 minutes, or 11 percent of the total day. The supervision of instruction was third, with a median daily time expenditure of 36 minutes, or less than 10 percent of the total time. Then followed in order: supervision of study halls, 33 minutes or 9 percent; holding conferences with pupils, 31 minutes or 8 percent; conferences with teachers, 22 minutes or 6 percent; school correspondence, 19 minutes or 5 percent; discipline, 17 minutes or 5 percent; community relationship, 10 minutes or 3 percent; conferences with parents, 9 minutes or 2 percent; inspecting buildings, 9 minutes or 2 percent; directing social affairs, 9 minutes or 2 percent; and entertaining visitors, 4 minutes or 1 percent. More time was given by principals to supervision in the larger schools; the maximum average, 69 minutes or 20 percent, was in high schools with from 501 to 1000 enrolment.

The superintendent of schools as a supervisor of instruction—Hughes[2] found that superintendents in school systems having from 8 to 12 teachers devote 8.75 percent of their time to supervision; superintendents in school systems having from 13 to 19 teachers spend 15.5 percent of their time in supervision; and superintendents with from 20 to 26 teachers spend 17.5 percent. The median percentage of time for the entire group was 12.7. As against this, the median judgment of 58 university professors was that 32.8 percent of a superintendent's time should be devoted to supervision. Theoretically, principals and superintendents appear to be giving too small a share of their time to supervision. In case of the superintendents, theory and practice unite in the verdict that the increased time for supervisory duties should be taken from teaching and clerical duties. Here again, it is necessary to emphasize the importance of studying the needs and resources of a local system before setting up specific time allotments for supervisory duties. An increase in the time allotted to principals for supervision may very well decrease the amount expected of the superintendent.

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[1] Eikenberry, D. H., *Status of the High-School Principal,* U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 24, 1925, pp. 51-4.

[2] Hughes, C. L., "The Functions of the School Superintendent in Theory and Practice," *American School Board Journal,* April, 1928, pp. 55-56; May, 1928, p. 70.

Redford,[1] for example, discovered when the 140 school systems which he studied were divided into four groups on the basis of school enrolment, that the superintendents in the smallest and largest districts perform, on the average, fewer supervisory duties than do the superintendents in the two intervening groups. Ayer found similar results in connection with his study mentioned below of 378 superintendents.

Table 4 lists all the duties of a definitely supervisory character which were performed by over one-half of the 140 superintendents who cooperated in Redford's study. The duties are ranked according to the number of superintendents performing them. On the basis of common performance, Redford considered these duties as the superintendent's standard supervisory duties.

TABLE 4.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES PERFORMED BY MORE THAN ONE-HALF OF 140 SUPERINTENDENTS REPORTING

Duty	Number of Superintendents Performing
1. Confer with individual teachers	117
2. Plan teachers' meetings	111
3. Inspect instruction	107
4. Direct teachers' meetings	100
5. Discuss topics in teachers' meetings	99
6. Initiate new teachers	97
7. Distribute teachers' loads	97
8. Suggest professional reading	94
9. Confer over test results	90
10. Criticize instruction	88
11. Establish uniform marking system	84
12. Suggest devices to teachers	83
13. Help teachers solve special problems	82
14. Explain curriculum to staff	82
15. Enroll teachers in teacher organization	80
16. Instruct teachers in discipline	76
17. Confer with principals and supervisors	76
18. Adjust teacher-pupil differences	73
19. Examine teachers' marks	73
20. Inspect daily schedule of teaching	71
21. Instruct teachers in methods	71

Table 5 on page 28 includes duties performed by over one-third, but less than one-half, of the 140 superintendents of schools. These duties Redford considered as the superintendent's supplementary supervisory duties.

The summary data from Redford's and Ayer's studies are presented in Table 6 on page 28. These studies indicate that superintendents in school systems with enrolments from 751 to 2000 pupils perform a greater variety of supervisory duties than in either larger or smaller systems.

Supervisory duties which school administrative officers should perform, according to research studies—There are a number of studies which bear somewhat directly upon the selection of the supervisory duties that should be performed by administrative officers. Melby[2] made a comprehensive study of the values placed upon a number of supervisory practices based on the judgment of teachers and educational specialists. As this study is reported in some detail in Chapter VI (See pages 130-3), it will not be included here, but the reader is invited at this point to read the discussion presented in Chapter VI.

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[1] See: Ayer, F. C.; and Barr, A. S., *The Organization of Supervision*, pp. 127-30. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1928.

[2] Melby, E. O., *A Critical Study of the Existing Organization and Administration of Supervision.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1929, 158 pp.

Dyer [1] made a widespread study of the supervisory activities of elementary school principals in cities of over 50,000 population. On the basis of returns from 658 elementary school principals and 43 educational specialists, Dyer

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[1] Dyer, W. P., *Activities of the Elementary School Principal for the Improvement of Instruction,* Contributions to Education, No. 274, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 102 pp.

TABLE 5.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES PERFORMED BY LESS THAN ONE-HALF AND MORE THAN ONE-THIRD OF 140 SUPERINTENDENTS REPORTING

Duty	Number of Superintendents Performing
1. Prepare instructions to teachers	69
2. Interpret intelligence tests	69
3. Read literature on curriculum construction	68
4. Help teachers make out daily program	67
5. Administer diagnostic tests	67
6. Give intelligence tests	65
7. Assist teachers find materials	64
8. Suggest methods of correlation	62
9. Make out courses of study	61
10. Instruct teachers in classroom management	61
11. Construct list of curriculum objectives	58
12. Look over lesson plans of teachers	57
13. Make study of causes of failure	54
14. Examine textbooks for pertinency to objectives	54
15. Explain remedial devices to teachers	54
16. Select list of professional magazines	51
17. Organize testing program	50
18. Instruct teachers in scoring and evaluating tests	50
19. Grade intelligence test papers	47
20. Assemble list of remedial devices	47

TABLE 6.—THE EFFECT OF SIZE OF ENROLMENT UPON THE PERFORMANCE OF SUPERVISORY DUTIES BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

Type of School	Enrolment	Average Percentage of Superintendents Performing Each Duty [1]
Redford's Study		
Village	60– 274	51
Small Town	275– 824	54
Large Town	825–1,649	56
City	1,650–6,500	50
Ayer's Study		
Village	Below 250	49
Small Town	251– 750	54
Large Town	751–2,000	61
City	2,000 up	55

[1] The duties referred to in Redford's study are those listed in Tables 4 and 5. For a more detailed discussion see pages 126-130, *The Organization of Supervision,* by Fred C. Ayer and A. S. Barr.

eventually classified 208 supervisory duties according to the number of principals performing them, according to the importance of their performance, and according to the desirability of their performance by elementary school principals. The duties which were performed by at least 50 percent of the principals and which at the same time were rated as being either of major or of average importance are exhibited in Table 7.

A considerable number of supervisory duties listed by Dyer were judged by the 43 educational specialists to be undesirable for elementary principals

TABLE 7.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES OF MAJOR AND AVERAGE IMPORTANCE WHICH WERE PERFORMED BY OVER 50 PERCENT OF 658 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

(Taken from Dyer's Data)

I. Duties of major importance performed by 75 percent of principals:
  1. Discusses general principles of teaching.
  2. Discusses special methods.
  3. Suggests how to adapt methods to individual differences.
  4. Suggests how to improve pupils' attitudes.
  5. Suggests how to improve study habits.
  6. Suggests how to improve lesson plans.
  7. Suggests remedial procedure for weak pupils.
  8. Suggests how to organize routine work.
  9. Holds individual and group conferences.
  10. Sends teacher to visit.
  11. Suggests how to improve attendance.
  12. Makes special promotions.
  13. Instructs janitor.
  14. Suggests how to improve discipline.

II. Duties of average importance performed by 75 percent of principals:
  1. Suggests how to conduct various types of lessons.
  2. Encourages professional organizations.
  3. Requires pupils to report.
  4. Suggests how to use school supplies.
  5. Suggests how to improve appearance of rooms.
  6. Suggests how to improve daily programs.

III. Duties of major importance performed by 50 percent of principals:
  1. Suggests how to stimulate pupils in planning activities.
  2. Suggests how to organize subject-matter around large problems.
  3. Suggests how to make use of pupils' interests.
  4. Suggests how to develop skill of pupils in judging moral situations.
  5. Suggests how to improve methods of questioning.
  6. Suggests how to improve methods of assigning work.
  7. Makes summary of observations.
  8. Suggests how to prepare informal tests.
  9. Gives standard educational tests.
  10. Makes diagnosis of pupils' errors.
  11. Suggests how to use outlines for checking pupils' progress.
  12. Studies educational tests to improve methods.
  13. Instructs how to give standard tests.
  14. Discusses estimation of value of teacher's work.
  15. Invites superior teachers to report visits.
  16. Arranges demonstration lesson.
  17. Organizes professional library.
  18. Appoints committees of teachers.
  19. Makes age-grade tables.
  20. Gives group intelligence tests.
  21. Gives educational tests to classify pupils.
  22. Scores standard tests.
  23. Records mental age.
  24. Records intelligence quotient.
  25. Interprets educational tests.
  26. Arranges for physical examinations.
  27. Records physical examinations.
  28. Makes flexible plan of classification.
  29. Discusses minimum essentials.
  30. Recommends building improvements.
  31. Suggests how to improve health conditions.
  32. Discusses methods of estimating pupils' work.
  33. Arranges exchange of subjects.
  34. Recommends teachers.
  35. Gives public addresses.

TABLE 7.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES OF MAJOR AND AVERAGE IMPORTANCE WHICH WERE PERFORMED BY OVER 50 PERCENT OF 658 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS—(Continued)

IV. Duties of average importance performed by 50 percent of principals:
  1. Discusses with teachers:
    a. Emphasis on oral and written work.
    b. Policy of homework.
    c. Conduct of short period drives.
    d. Conduct of socialized recitations.
    e. Use of devices.
    f. Examination questions.
    g. Marking of examination papers.
    h. Professional courses.
    i. Parts of curriculum to be emphasized.
    j. Changes in curriculum suggested by professors of education.
  2. Makes use of personal notebooks during visits.
  3. Presents summarized observations at teachers' meetings.
  4. Arranges exchange of visits.
  5. Gives demonstration lessons.
  6. Uses estimates of teachers for requisitions.
  7. Collects materials for projects.
  8. Provides summary of rules.
  9. Makes parent-teacher programs.

to perform. These undesirable duties are listed here in Table 8, and arranged according to whether they were rated to be of major, average, or minor importance.

TABLE 8.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES UNDESIRABLE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO PERFORM

(Taken from Dyer's Data)

I. Duties of major importance:
  1. Gives individual intelligence tests.
  2. Makes list of guiding principles for curriculum making.
  3. Makes plan of organization for materials of curriculum.
  4. Prepares list of educational objectives for each grade.
  5. Makes list of suggestive projects for each grade.
  6. Puts scientific studies of relative values of subject-matter into a form suitable for use by teachers.
  7. Makes tentative gradation of subject-matter according to maturity of children.
  8. Makes plan for continuous revision of curriculums.

II. Duties of average importance:
  1. Prepares list of general principles for teaching.
  2. Prepares list of special methods.
  3. Prepares practice materials of self-directing nature.
  4. Prepares illustration lesson plans.
  5. Prepares informal tests.
  6. Procures substitutes for teachers engaged in special assignments of work.
  7. Changes teachers to other grades for professional improvement.
  8. Makes homogeneous groups by physical conditions.
  9. Makes homogeneous groups by days of attendance.
  10. Makes promotion plan in less than normal time with no enrichment of curriculum.
  11. Makes analysis of adult activities.
  12. Makes list of moral situations.
  13. Makes collection of social science materials.
  14. Determines number of minutes per week for each subject.
  15. Selects features from courses of study of other cities.
  16. Puts community materials into usable form.
  17. Collects samples of supplies.
  18. Plans for relief from extra-curriculum activities.

III. Duties of minor importance:
  1. Lays out work into parts and spaces requirements.
  2. Writes letters to teachers for purposes of summarizing suggestions.
  3. Prepares examination questions.
  4. Keeps stenographic reports of teachers' meetings.
  5. Encourages teachers to measure growth by professional tests.
  6. Makes plan whereby teachers are advanced with classes.
  7. Coaches pupils who need help.
  8. Collects opinions of laymen on curriculum.

Ayer[1] made an investigation of the performance of one thousand duties on the part of 473 public school administrators, including superintendents, high-school principals, and elementary school principals, during a given year. Approximately one-fourth of the duties listed by Ayer relate to administrative contacts with teachers and, speaking broadly, pertain either to administrative or to creative supervision. The data presented by Ayer include median values which were assigned to the 1000 duties by 50 judges on the basis of their administrative importance as duties to be performed by a superintendent of schools. Taking only the duties which were performed by 50 percent or more of one of the groups of administrators—superintendents, high-school principals, or elementary principals—and which were rated as being either of primary or of average administrative importance, it is possible to select a list of apparently desirable supervisory duties. While there is no exact scientific evidence to prove the value of these duties, they are favored by two important criteria for selection, namely, frequency of performance by school administrators and desirability of performance based on expert judgment. The duties selected on the basis of these two criteria are exhibited in Table 9, which gives the name of each duty, its administra-

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[1] Ayer, Fred C., "The Duties of Public-School Administrators," series of articles in *American School Board Journal,* beginning February, 1929.

TABLE 9.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES OF PRIMARY AND AVERAGE IMPORTANCE WHICH WERE PERFORMED BY OVER 50 PERCENT OF SUPERINTENDENTS, HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, OR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Types and Titles of Duties Performed	Value	Percentage of Administrators Performing		
		Supt.	H. S. Prin.	El. S. Prin.
I. General Control:				
1. Advise teachers as to policies	1	94	88	73
II. Executive Management:				
1. Adjust complaints of parents	1	91	85	83
2. Investigate complaints of parents	1	90	85	85
3. Facilitate inspection by county and state officers	1	78	68	39
4. Keep school-day office hours	1	77	66	61
5. Examine sample of school work sent to office	2	80	75	66
6. Introduce visitor to teachers	2	70	79	67
7. Notify parents of child's bad habits	2	68	70	76
8. Supervise work of P. T. A.	2	40	19	51
III. Personnel Management of Teachers:				
1. Assign teachers	1	91	82	59
2. Notify teachers of school opening	1	89	58	45
3. Suggest professional books to teachers	1	88	85	71
4. Encourage worried teacher	1	87	88	80
5. Ask advice from teachers	1	87	87	81
6. Promote cordial relations with teachers	1	87	85	65
7. Promote cooperation among teachers	1	85	87	71
8. Suggest current magazine articles for reading	1	84	80	71
9. Initiate new teacher	1	80	85	81
10. Confer with teacher on personal welfare	1	80	80	70
11. Protect teachers from agent	1	78	71	61
12. Encourage teachers to experiment	1	71	64	62
13. Rate teachers	1	59	46	46
14. Discipline teacher	1	57	42	29
15. Investigate criticism of teacher	2	89	80	68
16. Encourage teachers to ask for advice	2	85	85	72
17. Assist teacher secure boarding place	2	83	72	41

TABLE 9.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES OF PRIMARY AND AVERAGE IMPORTANCE WHICH WERE PERFORMED BY OVER 50 PER-CENT OF SUPERINTENDENTS, HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, OR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS—(Continued)

Types and Titles of Duties Performed	Value	Percentage of Administrators Performing		
		Supt.	H. S. Prin.	El. S. Prin.
18. Entertain teachers	2	74	63	57
19. Arrange for attendance at institute	2	71	52	41
20. Advise teacher on social and moral conduct	2	70	48	29
21. Provide professional magazines	2	68	60	44
22. Administer teacher's request	2	67	64	55
23. Enroll teachers in teacher organization	2	65	53	41
24. Check school arrival of teachers	2	62	56	56
25. Recommend professional courses to teachers	2	61	48	49
26. Check extra work done by teachers	2	55	55	46
27. Advise teachers on teamwork qualities	2	55	45	41
28. Help teachers improve community standing	2	55	55	46
29. Meet teacher at train upon arrival	2	52	53	41
IV. Personnel Management of Pupils:				
1. Interview pupils referred by teachers	1	89	95	83
2. Examine teacher's marks	1	84	80	76
3. Instruct teachers in disciplinary procedure	1	81	95	72
4. Establish uniform marking system	1	68	57	37
5. Adjust difference between teacher and pupil	1	69	88	68
6. Investigate disciplinary cases	2	86	89	85
7. Adjust pupils' grievances and complaints	2	86	94	83
8. Instruct teacher in use of register	2	77	51	83
9. Decide disciplinary penalties	2	66	73	71
V. The Curriculum:				
1. Instruct teachers in registration duties	1	85	77	65
2. Explain curriculum to principals and teachers	1	73	57	34
3. Construct list of general educational objectives	1	59	53	49
4. Distribute teachers' loads	1	78	80	59
5. Check teachers' classroom schedules	2	81	45	69
6. Help teacher make out daily program	2	60	41	70
7. Provide teachers sample daily programs	2	51	53	49
VI. Supervision of Testing and Instruction:				
1. Hold conferences with individual teacher	1	92	85	85
2. Hold group conference	1	92	86	85
3. Observe teacher's classroom procedure	1	91	87	81
4. Discuss aims of teaching with teachers	1	89	84	59
5. Conduct teachers' meetings	1	86	87	85
6. Criticize teacher's classroom procedure	1	82	77	67
7. Plan outline of teacher meeting topics	1	73	70	59
8. Show teachers how to achieve aims	1	68	68	67
9. Explain purpose of testing program	1	66	51	51
10. Help teachers improve written examinations	1	66	63	44
11. Organize testing program	1	65	46	54
12. Train teachers to score and tabulate tests	1	62	49	49
13. Train teachers to give tests	1	56	42	44
14. Make statistical analysis of test results	1	55	42	44
15. Prepare plan of supervision	1	55	63	49
16. Help teachers provide for individual differences	2	77	71	67
17. Help teachers improve study habits of pupils	2	69	58	66
18. Suggest desirable changes in ways of assigning lessons	2	69	50	61
19. Assist teachers find materials	2	68	63	61
20. Look over lesson plans of teachers	2	67	45	54
21. Show teachers how to guide pupils into purposeful activities	2	64	63	59
22. Suggest improved special devices	2	57	45	49
23. Supervise giving of test	2	56	57	54
24. Suggest desirable changes as to assigned homework	2	55	43	37
25. Keep record of visits	2	54	51	54
26. Suggest how to conduct various types of lessons (e. g., drill)	2	54	41	56
27. Help teachers plan projects	2	53	39	54
28. Administer group test	2	51	63	60
29. Compute I. Q.'s or similar relations	2	47	51	46
VII. Special Services:				
1. Supervise work of librarian	2	59	57	51
Average	....	72	65	64

tive value, and the percentages of superintendents, high-school principals, and elementary principals, respectively, who performed the duty during the year. For example, the first duty listed, *Advise teachers as to policies,* was judged to be of first or major importance, and was performed by 94 percent of superintendents, 88 percent of high-school principals, and 73 percent of elementary school principals. Duties marked "1" are of major importance; duties marked "2" are of average importance.

In addition to the duties of major and average importance presented in Table 9 which were performed by over 50 percent of the public school administrators concerned, there was also a considerable number of supervisory duties which were rated as being of primary importance but which were performed by less than 50 percent of any one of the three groups of administrators. These duties are listed in Table 10.

The duties listed in the foregoing tables are not presented as an ideal group of supervisory activities to be followed indiscriminately or without reference to the particular administrative setting which may lie in the back-

TABLE 10.—SUPERVISORY DUTIES OF PRIMARY IMPORTANCE WHICH WERE PERFORMED BY LESS THAN 50 PERCENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Duties Performed	Percentage of Administrators Performing		
	Supt.	H. S. Prin.	El. S. Prin.
1. Construct summary table of marks given	49	43	32
2. Study teaching efficiency as shown by test results	49	34	46
3. Check supervisory results	48	48	41
4. Organize a professional library	46	32	39
5. Settle parent-teacher disagreement	45	39	41
6. Arrange for teacher visitation in outside schools	45	35	24
7. Explain items used in teacher rating	44	34	32
8. Explain remedial devices to teachers	44	32	44
9. Suggest plan for supervised study	43	35	41
10. Modify curriculum to fit teaching staff	42	31	15
11. Study types of errors	42	32	46
12. Keep a record of conferences	42	37	39
13. Explain practice tests to teachers	41	26	29
14. Assemble list of remedial devices	41	28	39
15. Rate principals and supervisors	41	9	15
16. Make comparative study of results in other cities	40	29	34
17. Have teacher report on observations	40	36	37
18. Arrange for demonstration lesson	39	21	44
19. Prepare list of curriculum-construction principles	36	36	24
20. Prepare set of supervision objectives	36	46	37
21. Arrange for teacher visitation in local schools	36	23	41
22. Reclassify pupils on basis of testing	35	29	34
23. Arrange leave of absence for teacher	34	35	32
24. Consult supervisor with reference to work	33	26	37
25. Examine petition from teachers	32	23	17
26. Organize teachers for curriculum revision	32	31	22
27. Plan meetings of supervisory staff	27	21	10
28. Attend meetings of supervisory staff	26	21	17
29. Make plans for continuous curriculum construction	25	19	12
30. Reassign failing teacher	24	20	17
31. Construct set of achievement standards	24	14	17
32. Direct meetings of supervisory staff	24	21	10
33. Organize try-outs of new courses	19	19	12
34. Organize auxiliary teaching	11	8	39
Average	36	29	30

ground. This is a matter which will be discussed in the concluding section of the present chapter. For the present we may note that there are several important facts which become apparent from a study of Tables 7 to 10 other than the evidence which they offer concerning the general desirability of certain selected supervisory duties.

In the first place, it may be noticed that when supervisory duties are classified according to the major fields of administrative service, such as (1) general control, (2) executive management, and (3) personnel management of teachers (See Table 9), they are distributed throughout the entire field of administration. It is a very significant fact that the great majority of these supervisory duties are performed with almost equal frequency by all three types of administrative officers—superintendent, high-school principal, and elementary school principal. This lends evidence to the theory that the supervisory training of superintendents and principals should be essentially the same. The duties, moreover, in great part are the same as those which characterize the activities of special supervisors to be discussed in the following section.

In the second place, in selecting a list of supervisory duties, it is necessary to place an arbitrary limit upon the minimum scope of work included in a single duty, for there is practically no limit to the process of dividing any given duty into a number of subordinate duties. The duty, *Give a demonstration lesson,* for example, may be divided into such minor duties as *Give a demonstration lesson in arithmetic, Give a demonstration lesson in reading,* etc., or *Prepare room to give demonstration lesson, Send out notices of demonstration lesson,* and so on almost indefinitely. It is also necessary to be somewhat arbitrary in the selection of duties to be represented, both as to the nature and the wording of a duty, in order to bring the many duties mentioned under a common system of classification. For these reasons, in any list of duties certain important minor duties may receive no specific mention and duties with different phraseology may be fused into similar duties with different wording. The lists above are, therefore, representative rather than complete.

Finally, it is important to note that both Dyer and Ayer found numerous supervisory duties which were rated by competent judges to be of primary importance but which were not performed by a majority of the public school administrators under study. On the whole the supervisory duties judged to be of primary importance were performed much more commonly than those which were judged to be of minor importance, but there were frequent exceptions. Other data in Ayer's study, not exhibited here, show that a considerable number of supervisory duties of minor importance are now being performed by a majority of public school administrators. The mere fact that a duty is widely performed is, therefore, no safe criterion of its administrative desirability or importance. Other factors need to be taken into consideration.

Practices of City School Superintendents in Directing the Activities of Supervisors[1]

Purpose of the study—W. G. Brink made a study to discover the current practices of city school superintendents in directing the activities of supervisors. He also evaluated these practices on the basis of the collective judgments of specialists in administration and supervision.

In cities from 25,000 to 100,000 in population, complex types of supervisory organizations have developed as a result of the practices of superintendents in delegating supervisory responsibilities to other officials. In the typical city of this size there are thirteen elementary school principals, three junior high-school principals, one senior high-school principal, one general supervisor, and at least three special supervisors, including those of art, music, and physical education. In situations of this kind, where several different types of supervisors are employed, the question arises as to the extent to which the superintendent should direct each of the different types of supervisors. For example, should the superintendent give different types of supervisors a wide range of freedom in their activities, or should he direct them closely? This report presents a brief summary of the current practices of city school superintendents in dealing with this problem.

Method and procedure—The data for the study were secured through the cooperation of superintendents and certain members of their supervisory staffs in cities distributed throughout the United States. Two methods were used, the personal interview and the questionnaire. The personal interview method was utilized in obtaining the data in twenty school systems and in perfecting a simplified form to supplement and extend the scope of the study.

In each of the twenty schools personally visited, interviews were held with the superintendent, the high-school principal, one of the elementary school principals, a general supervisor, and one of the special supervisors. Superintendents and supervisors in all other cities of the size included and not personally visited were requested to cooperate in the study by checking special forms constructed on the basis of the data secured through personal interviews. Since reports of the practices of superintendents in directing supervisors were obtained not only from the superintendent but also from at least one of each of the different types of supervisors, it was possible to secure a more reliable picture of the actual practices.

Emphasis was placed upon the extent to which superintendents direct the activities of different types of supervisors. Extent of direction was measured through the use of four degrees, namely: (1) The superintendent makes a requirement concerning a certain item; (2) The superintendent offers suggestions to the supervisor concerning an item; (3) The superintendent approves a report from the supervisor concerning an item; and (4) The superintendent leaves complete freedom to the supervisor concerning an item. Superintendents and supervisors were asked to check the degree which most nearly expressed the extent to which the superintendent directs each type of supervisor in each of the different activities.

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[1] The present report was written by W. G. Brink, and presents a brief summary of the findings of one aspect of his study, *The Practices of City School Superintendents in Directing and Coordinating the Activities of Supervisors.* Doctor's Dissertation, School of Education, Northwestern University, 1929.

Findings—Tables 11 and 12 present a summary of the percentage of superintendents who follow various practices in directing supervisors in items related to instruction and in their supervisory activities. The outstanding characteristic of the data given in these tables is the general lack of uniformity in current practices. The practices vary all the way from giving supervisors complete freedom to prescribing in detail what they shall do and how they shall do it.

Elementary school principals and general supervisors receive a greater degree of direction than any of the other types of supervisors. High-school principals and special supervisors receive the least direction. A special study

TABLE 11.—PERCENTAGES OF SUPERINTENDENTS WHO REPORTED VARIOUS DEGREES OF DIRECTION GIVEN SUPERVISORS IN ITEMS RELATING TO INSTRUCTION

Direction of Instruction	High-School Principals				Elementary Principals				General Supervisors				Special Supervisors			
	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
A. Aims:																
1. General aims of education	24	54	10	12	33	49	9	9	37	44	11	8	38	41	13	8
2. General aims for each subject	12	27	27	34	12	48	23	17	7	20	32	41	4	16	38	42
3. Immediate aims for each unit	5	15	22	58	11	18	23	48	0	16	18	66	7	4	20	69
B. Methods, Technics, and Devices:																
1. In general	3	5	12	80	3	8	28	61	7	36	18	39	0	24	13	63
2. In detail	0	0	3	97	0	1	6	93	0	7	16	77	0	4	11	85
C. Content of Course of Study:																
1. In general (textbooks)	20	22	29	29	49	23	26	2	32	9	55	4	16	20	22	42
2. In detail	10	17	37	36	16	21	35	28	9	16	34	41	4	4	16	76
D. Time Allotments:																
1. In general for each course	24	12	34	30	52	23	19	6	22	18	46	44	49	20	18	13
2. In detail for each unit	10	14	15	61	15	15	31	39	9	14	20	57	20	4	22	54
E. Daily Program of Class Work:																
1. In general	0	5	8	87	14	20	24	42	16	11	22	51	18	11	24	47
2. In detail	7	12	12	69	8	5	30	57	7	4	9	80	4	2	11	83

The capital letters in the column headings represent different degrees of direction superintendents give different types of supervisors in accordance with the following plan:

A The superintendent makes a requirement concerning a certain item.
B The superintendent offers suggestions to the supervisor concerning a certain item.
C The superintendent approves a report from the supervisor concerning a certain item.
D The superintendent leaves complete freedom to the supervisor concerning a certain item.

Read Table 11 as follows: Twenty-four percent of the superintendents reported that they make a requirement concerning the general aims of education in relation to high-school principals. Fifty-four percent of the superintendents reported that they offer suggestions to the high-school principals concerning the general aims of education. Ten percent of the superintendents reported that they approve reports from high-school principals concerning the general aims of education. Twelve percent of the superintendents reported that they give high-school principals complete freedom concerning the general aims of education.

of the extent to which superintendents direct each of the different supervisors of special subjects such as art, music, and physical education, showed only slight differentiation in practices. In the majority of school systems, special supervisors are given complete freedom in the various items related to instruction and in their supervisory activities. A comparison of the reports of superintendents and elementary and high-school principals showed high agreement; however, considerable discrepancies occurred between the reports of superintendents and those of general and special supervisors. In general, it was found that general and special supervisors feel that they have more

TABLE 12.—PERCENTAGES OF SUPERINTENDENTS WHO REPORTED VARIOUS DEGREES OF DIRECTION GIVEN SUPERVISORS IN THEIR ACTIVITIES

Direction of Supervisors' Activities	High-School Principals				Elementary Principals				General Supervisors				Special Supervisors			
	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
A. Setting up Objectives for Supervision:																
1. Subjects to be emphasized	12	17	17	54	21	29	11	29	11	41	27	21	3	9	22	66
B. Visitation of Teachers:																
1. Schedule of visits	7	17	10	66	15	12	23	50	16	18	14	52	4	15	17	64
2. Procedure in visiting	...	20	12	68	6	24	18	52	0	18	9	73	0	16	12	72
3. Purpose for visiting	5	16	12	67	6	35	17	42	0	16	11	73	2	16	26	66
C. Teachers' Meetings:																
1. Schedule of meetings	11	27	12	50	33	20	6	41	16	11	23	50	11	15	9	65
2. Topics for discussion	5	15	10	70	10	24	4	62	4	7	16	73	5	9	13	73
D. Conferences with Teachers:																
1. Schedule of conferences	5	15	10	70	6	12	8	70	9	9	8	73	9	0	20	71
2. Topics for discussion	2	7	13	78	3	12	4	81	2	9	5	84	7	4	9	80
E. Demonstration Teaching:																
1. Kind	2	10	5	83	1	8	14	77	0	7	7	86	2	2	7	89
2. Amount	2	13	2	83	3	14	9	74	0	9	14	77	4	9	18	69
F. Rating of Teachers:																
1. Frequency of rating	54	22	7	17	58	5	7	30	61	5	7	27	33	13	9	45
2. Rating cards to be used	56	15	2	27	51	5	7	37	57	2	7	34	29	7	4	60
3. Purposes for rating	47	24	2	27	47	10	9	34	55	9	2	34	20	18	11	51
G. Testing and Measuring:																
1. Subjects and grades	22	29	12	37	38	17	24	21	22	21	22	35	11	7	9	73
2. Frequency of testing	19	32	10	39	24	21	24	31	16	25	22	37	9	4	9	79
3. Tests to use	17	19	20	44	23	21	30	26	16	18	25	41	4	9	11	76
4. How to use results of tests	5	29	12	54	12	35	16	37	7	21	22	50	4	11	11	74
H. Improving Teachers in Service:																
1. Professional reading	2	16	7	75	14	32	4	50	7	27	14	52	2	11	7	80
2. Summer school attendance	1	10	13	76	6	44	5	45	18	27	9	46	6	29	15	50
3. Bulletins and circulars	4	6	5	85	12	36	8	44	7	32	16	45	4	9	9	78
4. Exhibits	2	4	2	92	6	26	8	60	7	25	16	52	2	9	24	65
5. Intervisitation	6	20	8	66	5	29	14	52	7	21	22	50	3	22	15	60
6. Experimentation	0	2	7	91	1	39	20	60	0	16	30	54	2	20	16	62

See Table 11 for an explanation of the capital letters used in the column headings.

Read Table 12 as follows: Twelve percent of the superintendents reported that they make a requirement as to the subjects to be emphasized in relation to high-school principals. Seventeen percent of the superintendents reported that they offer suggestions to the high-school principal concerning the subjects to be emphasized. Seventeen percent of the superintendents reported that they approve reports from high-school principals concerning the subjects to be emphasized. Fifty-four percent of the superintendents reported that they give complete freedom to high-school principals concerning subjects to be emphasized.

freedom in their work than is accorded them according to the reports of superintendents.

Little direction seems to be given the different supervisors in the activities involved in improving teachers in service. A study by Melby [1] shows that these activities are the ones least engaged in by supervisors, and that specialists in supervision and administration more frequently checked these activities as being of great value.

Judgments of specialists relative to the amount of direction supervisors should receive from their superintendents—An attempt was made to evaluate the present practices of superintendents in directing supervisors on the basis of the judgments of specialists in supervision and administration. Fifty-eight specialists cooperated in this aspect of the study. Their responses indicate only slight differentiation in the extent of direction which they believe should be given different types of supervisors. The majority of the specialists feel that some direction should be given supervisors concerning the general nature of the items of instruction, the objectives for the supervisor's program, testing and measuring, and activities of improving teachers in service. The degrees most frequently checked were offering suggestions, and approving reports. Specialists further expressed their judgments in favor of giving all types of supervisors complete freedom in respect to the details of instruction and in such activities as visitation of teachers, and holding individual and group conferences with teachers.

III. The Duties of Special Supervisory Officers

In addition to the administrative officers whose supervisory duties have been discussed in the previous section, there are five types of special supervisory officers. The first type is the supervisor who is commonly called a "special supervisor" and whose duties are concerned with the supervision of the special subjects, such as physical education, music, art, manual training, home economics, and handwriting. The second type is the supervisor who is usually called a "general supervisor," whose work is, notwithstanding the title, of a special supervisory character, and whose duties are generally concerned with the supervision of a group of academic subjects. The third type is the divisional supervisor, who is placed in special supervisory charge of a school division, such, for example, as the kindergarten or junior high-school grades. The fourth type is the supervisor who is sometimes called a supervisor, sometimes a director, and sometimes an assistant superintendent, and who is placed in charge of a special group of educational services, such as extension, special education, or research services. Finally, the fifth type is the part-time supervisor who has been detached from all or part of his regular duties for purposes of special supervision. Such, for example, are the supervising teacher, the demonstration teacher, the creative teacher, the principal who supervises a subject in a school other than his own, and the departmental head whose duties have been changed to those of a special supervisor for a given semester.

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[1] Melby, E. O., *A Critical Study of the Existing Organization and Administration of Supervision.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1929. 158 pp.

Although the duties of the above five sets of officers have not always been sharply defined or entirely separated from duties which are administrative in character, they have been directed primarily toward the improvement of instruction, and, as a group, are best designated as special supervisory duties. This statement is particularly true for the first three groups of officers, known as special, general, and divisional supervisors. In organizing the work of these supervisors the public school administrator is confronted with a number of important problems. In light of the part played by regular administrative officers, what part should these special supervisors play in the supervision of instruction? The desirability of special supervision is apparently well established [1] as a part of public education, but the particular responsibilities which special supervisors should assume and the particular duties which they may best perform are problems that are still far from settled.

A number of studies which bear upon the general features of special supervision have been brought together by Ayer and Barr.[2] It will be sufficient here to quote from their chapter summary:[3]

> The outstanding observation which may be made from this mass of data is that supervisory organization as a whole, while it has many common features, is characterized by a surprisingly large amount of individual variation. It is impossible at the present time to describe a single city organization which may be said to be typical of the country's current practices. In lieu of this, for the purpose of summarization, we may set up a hypothetical supervisor who embodies the most frequent practice. . . . In doing this, the various percentages of frequency attached to each practice will be indicated in parentheses immediately following the naming of the practice.
>
> Such an imaginary supervisor would be directly responsible to the superintendent of schools (64 percent), would have large freedom in the control of departmental activities (47 percent), would nominate his departmental teachers and assistants (69 percent), would act in the capacity of an assistant superintendent while in the school buildings (39 percent), would yield to the principal in giving orders to the teachers (37 percent), would share responsibilities for supervision of academic subjects with the principal (56 percent), would be granted no remuneration in connection with local transportation (44 percent), would find a room for demonstration purposes in the local school buildings (65 percent), would keep library references in his own department (36 percent), would be elected on a progressive salary schedule (46 percent), and the major need of his department would be an increase in the number of assistants (32 percent).
>
> This supervisor would begin the year's work with a teachers' meeting which would usually be supplemented by conferences and special printed or mimeographed materials. He would require lesson plans (51 percent), and would hold monthly teachers' meetings at which attendance would be compulsory (80 percent). This supervisor would usually discuss in these meetings methods of instruction, courses

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[1] See: Ayer, F. C.; and Barr, A. S., *The Organization of Supervision,* Chapter IV, "The Place of Special Supervision in the Supervision of Instruction." New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1928.

[2] *Ibid.,* pp. 38-85.

[3] *Ibid.,* pp. 83-85.

> of study, objectives, and experimental work. This supervisor would visit teachers monthly, the average visit being about thirty minutes in length. About 45 percent of the supervisor's visits would be unannounced; 35 percent, announced; and 20 percent, scheduled. While in the classroom, the supervisor would evaluate the lesson, suggest remedial measures, check on previous suggestions, initiate new projects, suggest devices, and occasionally teach.
>
> In considering the several items, it should be remembered that they are selected solely on the basis of high frequency of appearance, and do not, as such, have any bearing upon each other. It is quite probable that no single supervisory department corresponds to the hypothetical one featured above. The most frequent practices, however, are not necessarily the ideal ones; in fact, several of them are quite the reverse. The frequencies given, however, do reveal on the basis of common practice what may be looked for in the way of special features of departmental organization in the large cities of the United States.

The most extensive study which has been made of the detailed duties of special supervisors was made by Barr[1] in 1926. Barr made an analysis of some five thousand weekly program reports from supervisors to the superintendent of schools, stating the activities performed by them. On the basis of this analysis, a list was prepared of the various duties which were actually performed. This original list was very extensive and detailed, but by classifying similar duties under common headings it was possible to reduce the total number of duties to a summary list, which appears below as Table 13.

It is impossible here to list all of the detailed supervisory activities which entered into the summary duties listed in Table 13. An excellent idea, however, may be obtained of the nature of the day-by-day supervisory activities by giving a sample of the specific training activities engaged in by the Detroit supervisors. This is shown in Table 14 on page 42.

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[1] Barr, A. S., "An Analysis of the Duties and Functions of Instructional Supervisors, A Study of the Detroit Supervisory Organization," *Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 7,* University of Wisconsin, January, 1926. 176 pp.

TABLE 13.—A SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE ACTIVITIES OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS IN DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

1. Selection of Textbooks:
    a. Select textbooks
    b. Determine standard of distribution
    c. Prepare materials pertaining to the use of textbooks
    d. Appraise textbooks in use

2. Study of Supplies, Equipment, and Buildings:
    a. Prepare descriptive lists of instructional supplies
    b. Assist in the preparation of standards of distribution
    c. Prepare directions for the use of supplies
    d. Prepare specifications for classroom equipment
    e. Assist in building plans
    f. Study instructional effectiveness of supplies, equipment, and buildings

3. Assistance in the Selection, Appointment, Assignment, and Transfer of Teachers:
    a. Recommend teachers for appointment
    b. Rate teachers
    c. Advise with administrative officials upon the transfer and assignment of teachers
    d. Assist in personnel problems

4. Community Activities (Work with Outside Agencies):
    a. Answer requests for assistance from the community
    b. Attend numerous miscellaneous community meetings
    c. Address community groups
    d. Participate in the civic, social, and educational affairs of the community

TABLE 13.—A SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE ACTIVITIES OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS IN DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS—(Continued)

5. Field Work (Inspection):
    a. Visit schools
    b. Answer calls for assistance
6. Training Activities:
    a. Hold teachers' meetings
    b. Plan for demonstration teaching
    c. Direct observation
    d. Provide for directed teaching
    e. Organize institutes
    f. Prepare bibliographies
    g. Hold conferences
    h. Enlist the interest of teachers in correspondence courses, extension courses, summer classes, late afternoon, evening, and Saturday classes
    i. Arrange for and advertise lectures and concerts
    j. Develop educational exhibits
    k. Provide for social contacts
    l. Promote professional organizations of teachers, principals, and supervisors
7. Surveys, Reports, Records, and Schedules:
    a. Conduct surveys of instructional conditions in the several fields of learning
    b. Render reports upon general instructional conditions within the system
    c. Make special reports to the superintendent and to the board of education
    d. Keep miscellaneous temporary records
8. Preparation of Instructional Materials:
    a. Prepare notices and announcements
    b. Prepare discussions of special instructional problems
    c. Prepare courses of study
    d. Prepare descriptive materials concerning various city-wide projects
9. Research:
    a. Construct and standardize tests
    b. Study instructional problems experimentally
10. Professional Activities:
    a. Attend educational meetings
    b. Serve on educational committees
    c. Write educational articles
    d. Address professional groups
11. Educational Publicity:
    a. Prepare news articles
    b. Prepare educational exhibits
    c. Address community groups
12. Survey of General Educational Progress:
    a. Report upon educational progress made in other cities
    b. Review recent educational literature
    c. Report upon educational progress made in centers of research
13. General Administration:
    a. Sell instructional materials to administrative officials
    b. Carry through delegated administrative projects
    c. Organize instructional projects

Barr[1] also made a time study of the duties performed by the Detroit supervisors for a period covering a year. The results of this study are shown in Table 15 on page 43.

The outstanding feature disclosed in Table 15 is the relatively large amounts of time given to research and study (38.9 percent) and to general administration (35.1 percent). The large amount of time devoted to study and research is not surprising in the face of the emphasis placed upon this activity by the official policy governing supervisory functions in Detroit, but the large amount of time which Detroit supervisors actually devote to administrative duties is a clear indication of the extreme difficulty of distinguishing sharply between administrative and supervisory duties.

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[1] Barr, A. S., "An Analysis of the Duties and Functions of Instructional Supervisors, A Study of the Detroit Supervisory Organization," *Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 7*, University of Wisconsin, January, 1926, pp. 58-67.

TABLE 14.—TYPICAL EXAMPLES OF THE SPECIFIC TRAINING ACTIVITIES OF SUPERVISORS[1]

1. Assisted new teachers in the office by explanation of course of study and technic of the work.
2. Met the teachers of millinery in high schools for purpose of starting plans for reorganizing C. R. S. in intermediate schools.
3. Selected thirty "key" teachers and planned a first meeting for training such teachers to demonstrate a new spelling procedure to principals.
4. Scheduled meetings for demonstration lessons in spelling.
5. Conducted a series of demonstration lessons for district principals to train them to judge the quality of instruction in spelling.
6. Attended a reading conference with teachers from Teachers College in order to observe two demonstrations in reading.
7. Selected for the visiting list of the Department of Transfers and Assignments certain teachers who are doing exceptional work.
8. Planned and arranged for meetings to train teachers new to the system in the use of the film "Democracy in Education" and the film on "Handwriting."
9. Gave a demonstration lesson at the Brady School. A discussion was held before and after this lesson by the teachers of writing and the principal of the building.
10. Gave thirty-three demonstrations for teachers new to the system.
11. Held weekly meetings with teachers new to the music department, for the purpose of instruction.
12. Gave a talk on book repair to a group of librarians.
13. Gave a demonstration of field-ball.
14. Assisted a teacher of literature in the Field School, and prepared material to aid her in training her class in scoring compositions.
15. In the office assisted forty teachers concerning work, schedules, and problems of various kinds.
16. Held a first meeting of Teachers College Evening Class.
17. Taught a lesson in the fourth grade at the A. L. Holmes School (upon request of teacher).
18. Assisted teachers who came to the office for instruction in making Christmas gifts.
19. Held two demonstrations for thirty-five teachers selected to use the new practice-test cabinet in arithmetic designed for 3A and 4B classes.
20. Worked with the seventh-grade teachers of the Miller Intermediate School on the use of supplementary arithmetic material.
21. Gave assistance to teachers and made plans for remedial work in Greusel School.
22. Gave demonstration of the use of slides in classroom teaching in Thirkell School.
23. Trained teachers in use of the De Vry machines in the auditorium.
24. Held a conference with the teachers of mathematics of Joyce Intermediate, to explain and outline the intermediate mathematics program.
25. Held a meeting at the Detroit Institute of Arts for the purpose of giving suggestions for Hallowe'en, Thanksgiving, and Christmas work.
26. Met with a committee of teachers from intermediate schools for the purpose of studying the possibilities of art in school's plays and festivals.
27. By request of the auditorium teachers, collected material and made sketches to illustrate the different periods in fashion and costumes of the different nations.
28. Planned a meeting of teachers who are to use *The Youth's Companion* and *The American Boy* for free reading.
29. Laid out a program of health instruction for twenty-five fourth, fifth, and sixth-grade teachers in the Russell, Capron, and Barstow Schools.
30. Distributed and explained, at a meeting of sixth, seventh, and eighth-grade teachers, bulletins describing intra-mural school tournament.
31. Prepared materials and conducted a meeting of women directors and basket-ball coaches in intermediate and high schools.
32. Explained field-ball to group of teachers.
33. Attended a meeting of the English teachers at Northwestern High School to answer questions and talk over the writing experiment conducted there this semester.
34. Held a meeting at the Stephens School for a group of forty teachers who had asked for special assistance in writing. There will be a series of three meetings.
35. Met the faculty at Northwestern High School and presented the aims and objectives of the social science curriculum.
36. Met the teachers and principals of three districts to present the basic principles of the social science curriculum.
37. Gave a talk on visual education at a meeting of auditorium teachers.
38. Presented to the teachers of English of the Barbour School, materials to be used for remedial work in reading.
39. Held teachers' meeting at Central High for high-school teachers of domestic science. Reported on work presented at the Chicago meeting, home and school problems, especially the relation to health program.
40. Met with the teachers of mathematics and general science of the Hutchins Intermediate School and assisted the principal in the final organization of these departments.

The studies of the duties of supervisors which have been made outside of Detroit agree fairly well with Barr's study as to the various kinds of duties which were performed, but differ markedly as to the emphasis placed upon the several major types of duties included. Miss Briggs,[1] for example, made a comprehensive analysis of the statements of experts, superintendents of city school systems, rules of boards of education, reports from supervisors, professional literature, and the reports of school surveys, and found an array of supervisory activities listed which were very similar to those in operation at Detroit. On the other hand, the two activities—research and the experimental study of teaching, which were ranked very high in Detroit, were among the lowest items mentioned in Miss Briggs' list. Miss Briggs' study also indicated that considerably more stress is placed outside of Detroit upon the supervisor's function of visiting teachers.

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[1] Barr, A. S., "An Analysis of the Duties and Functions of Instructional Supervisors, A Study of the Detroit Supervisory Organization," *Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 7*, University of Wisconsin, January, 1926, pp. 32-34.

Risk's study,[2] based upon returns from 159 supervisors in various parts of the United States, also differs greatly from the Detroit study in the amount of time given to classroom visitation. Risk found that the leading supervisory activity in the United States was classroom visitation, with comparatively little time given to other teacher-training activities. There is consideraable evidence to indicate that supervisors are giving less of their total time to classroom visitation now than in 1925, but this type of supervision undoubtedly is still the dominant one in the majority of small cities.

IV. Practical Considerations

Up to the present point in the discussion of the duties of supervisory officers, an attempt has been made to cover three topics: First, the relation between supervisory and administrative duties; second, the supervisory duties performed by administrative officers; and third, the duties of special supervisory officers. It is the purpose of this, the final section of the chapter, to consider briefly certain practical implications involved in the listing of

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[1] Briggs, Delia C., *The Duties and Responsibilities of the Supervisor,* Master's Thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1925.

[2] Risk, T. M., *Supervisory Organization and Procedure in Public Schools,* Master's Thesis University of Wisconsin, 1925.

TABLE 15.—THE PERCENTAGES OF TIME GIVEN BY DETROIT SUPERVISORS TO DIFFERENT SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

(Taken from Barr's Data)

Type of Activity	Percentage of Time Given to Activity
1. Time spent in research and study	38.9
2. General administration	35.1
3. Preparation of materials	31.8
4. Time spent with teachers	20.0
5. Putting plans into operation	19.7
6. Time spent in conference	16.0
7. Time spent in visitation	15.3
8. Time spent in routine	13.4
9. Time spent in meetings	9.5
10. Time spent in correspondence and telephoning	7.5
11. Time spent with other supervisors	5.4
12. Time spent with staff members	5.2
13. Time spent with outside agencies	3.7
14. Time spent with administrative officials	2.7
15. Time spent with principals	2.6
16. Time spent with district principals	.6
17. Time spent in committees	.5

supervisory duties and to summarize the major points which have been brought to light in the present review.

A considerable number of supervisory duties have been listed in previous sections of this chapter. Many of these duties have been judged to be of major importance by groups of competent judges and as such deserve the thoughtful consideration of every supervisory officer. The administrative problem, however, of selecting the most appropriate set of duties to be performed in a given community is much more than the task of first scanning a list of desirable duties and then selecting those which apparently fit most readily into the current situation. To do this properly, there must be an underlying appreciation of the general purposes of supervision and an adequate understanding of the principles which govern the attainment of desirable educational objectives. Supervisory duties which are desirable in one school community are not necessarily desirable in another. In choosing the supervisory duties which are most appropriate to perform, due regard must be given to the following factors: (1) The general principles which govern the organization of supervision; (2) the special objectives of a supervisory program; and (3) the personnel for carrying out a program of supervision.

The general principles which govern the organization of supervision—The principles which govern the organization of supervision are treated in detail in the following chapter. It is sufficient here to commend the reader's attention to this special treatment of the principles of supervisory organization and to emphasize the fact that a thorough understanding of these principles will greatly facilitate the selection of the day-by-day duties which most readily bring about the attainment of supervisory objectives.

The special objectives of a supervisory program—While the major objective of supervision should be the general improvement of instruction, it is advisable, and particularly so in school systems with limited facilities for carrying out supervision, to aim definitely at the attainment of a number of special objectives, such as the improvement in the teaching of arithmetic, the improvement of school study habits, or the development of professional study on the part of teachers. For example, in a small city school system where little attention has been given to organized supervision, the chief emphasis of the first year's organized supervisory program might well be given to the achievement of the following special objectives:

1. The improvement of teachers' meetings
2. The improvement of reading instruction in the elementary schools
3. The development of professional reading among the members of the educational staff
4. The improvement of school study habits in the high school.

The supervisory program need not necessarily include all of, or be limited to, the four objectives stated above. There are numerous other equally important objectives, but these are suggested as offering an excellent basis for an initial supervisory drive with high practical values. It would undoubtedly be better in many school systems to postpone such more complicated objectives as curriculum revision, supervised study, individual pupil progress, teacher rating, and extensive testing until the initial supervisory program has gained more momentum. Under these circumstances, it will readily be seen that the particular supervisory duties best to perform in any given city will depend materially upon the preliminary choice of special supervisory objectives.

The personnel for carrying out a program of supervision—The selection of supervisory duties is also intimately connected with the peculiar personnel of the local administrative, supervisory, and teaching staff. The problem of personnel in connection with supervision in small cities is a difficult one. In a large school system with a large administrative staff, it is possible to have special supervisors whose duties pertain to single buildings or to single subjects, such as supervising principals or drawing supervisors. These officers have few or no additional teaching or administrative duties. Such an arrangement is practically impossible in small cities where lack of numbers prevents supervisory specialization, and where the administrative officers must of necessity take on supervisory duties and, not infrequently, teaching duties in addition. In most small cities, the bulk of the supervisory activities will most appropriately fall upon its administrative officers—the superintendent of schools and the several building principals. The superintendent of schools must first of all take a direct interest in supervision as one of his primary services. His financial, building, publicity, personnel, and routine activities are matters of large administrative importance, but they must not be permitted to interfere with the proper upbuilding of instructional conditions. Strayer and Englehardt [1] may well be quoted here.

> There must be a chief supervisory officer—the superintendent of schools. Superintendents have turned supervision over to principals and special supervisors without offering proper leadership, providing adequate plans of operation, or making checks upon subsequent supervisory results. As a consequence, progress in the development of expert supervision in these cities has lagged far behind the comparable progress which has been made in such phases of school administration as child accounting, financial management, the building program, and school board organization.

The crucible of education is the classroom, and the superintendent's chief interest, regardless of his supplementary duties, must ultimately end in teaching and the improvement of teaching.

To the full extent that building principals are qualified, they should be placed in entire charge of the instructional program within their respective buildings. The principal should be responsible for operating the course of study, for supervising all activities within his building, for carrying out the superintendent's policies, and for providing teachers with stimulative professional leadership. The plan of supervision for each building should be worked out under the advice and approval of the superintendent of schools. Reports of progress should be made to the superintendent, and the superintendent should hold the principal responsible for constructive results. Each principal according to the size of his school, should be released from a sufficient part of his teaching load to afford ample time for supervision. Free time for teaching principals may be secured in several ways. One way recommended for small school systems is the employment of a relief teacher to relieve the principal regularly of part of his teaching duties, and to relieve other teachers occasionally when sick, visiting, or engaged in auxiliary teaching. When not engaged in relief teaching, the relief teacher may be assigned to library or clerical work. The superintendent of schools should act as general supervisor in the smaller schools, or delegate the work to a supervising teacher.

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[1] Strayer, George D.; and Engelhardt, N. L., *The Classroom Teacher at Work in American Schools,* p. 45. New York, American Book Company, 1920.

The supervising teacher—It is recommended for small school systems that certain outstanding teachers be designated as supervising teachers and delegated to give assistance to other teachers in the field of instruction. Such a teacher should be freed or temporarily relieved from a certain amount of his classroom duties in order to help less experienced teachers. The number of such teachers to be appointed will depend to a considerable extent upon the available time and supervisory abilities of the superintendent and the building principals. The supervising teacher may well be assigned the duties which are being neglected by the regular administrative supervisory officers either through lack of time or by virtue of the peculiar special supervisory ability required. The classroom of a supervising teacher should serve as a demonstration room for visiting teachers and as an experimental room to try out new devices and materials of instruction. The supervising teacher is in every case to be administratively under the principal of the building in which he is serving in a supervisory capacity. He is a regular teacher but specially interested in duties concerned with the improvement of instruction.

The general supervisor—A number of small cities employ "general supervisors" to assist the administrative officers with their supervisory duties. A general supervisor who is trained in methods of research, curriculum construction, educational testing, and the details of expert teaching procedure can be of distinct service to practically any school system, and especially so where the administrative officers are weak in supervisory proficiency. This is a matter for the superintendent of schools to decide after considering the supervisory ability of his present staff, but in the greater number of small school systems a more promising solution for ineffective supervision lies in the assumption of fuller supervisory responsibilities by the present administrative staff. Such a solution gives promise of a better integration of educational activities and of fewer conflicts in authority. Whatever shortcomings the present administrative staff may have should be removed by appropriate individual study or by eventual substitution of new officers.

This section may be very appropriately closed by quoting from Ayer and Barr [1] with reference to general supervisory planning.

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[1] Ayer, Fred C.; and Barr, A. S., *The Organization of Supervision*, pp. 372-373. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1928.

It is possible for a superintendent of schools to set up an effective plan of supervisory organization adapted to the needs and facilities of any local situation. He should first of all become thoroughly acquainted with the supervisory activities which are actually in operation in the various school units. In doing this, he should prepare a basic list of duties to be used in checking the activities of his various supervisory officers, not forgetting his own. Having definitely ascertained existing conditions, he should select a set of desirable supervisory objectives which seem attainable, and, again aided by the check list, fix upon the appropriate supervisory duties that are to be carried out during the current school year. Taking into account the abilities and time loads of the various members of his educational staff, he should then assign the various supervisory duties to the officers best situated to carry them out, and fix responsibility for the ultimate success of the several major features of the projected plan upon the appropriate administrative and supervisory officers.

In doing this, he may find it possible to proceed without making any changes in his original administrative organization, other than a more specific assignment of authority and allocation of duties. On the other hand, he may find it advisable to adopt a new type of supervisory procedure and possibly to introduce entirely new supervisory officers, such as supervising teachers or subject supervisors. . . . Having finally set up what may be called an administrative organization for the promotion of supervision, there will still remain the important task of providing stimulative guidance as the plan matures, and the ultimate necessity of making a systematic check upon the ensuing results.

V. Summary

1. There is a widespread lack of agreement as to the exact nature and scope of supervision.

2. The earlier type of general supervision exercised over public school systems by various legally appointed officers has been succeeded by a more specialized type of professional supervision which relates particularly to the improvement of instruction.

3. Professional supervision is now carried on by both administrative and special supervisory officers.

4. Supervision is a part of the general administrative program, and it is difficult to draw an official line of demarcation between administrative duties and supervisory duties.

5. Supervisory activities very similar in nature grow out of the legitimate interests of both general administrators and instructional supervisors.

6. The amount of time which elementary school principals give to supervision varies, according to different investigations, from 15 to 36 percent.

7. The amount of time which elementary school principals should ideally give to supervision varies, according to the judgment of experts, from 31 to 51 percent.

8. Eikenberry found that supervision (36 minutes per day) was the third most important activity of the high-school principal, being exceeded in time expenditure by teaching (138 minutes per day) and by routine office work (40 minutes per day).

9. Hughes found that superintendents in small school systems devoted

12.7 percent of their time to supervision, in contrast to the ideal of 32.8 percent proposed by university professors.

10. Redford and Ayer found that superintendents in comparatively small and comparatively large school systems performed fewer supervisory duties than superintendents in school systems of average size.

11. Dyer discovered 73 supervisory duties of major or average importance which were performed by over 50 percent of a large group of elementary principals.

12. Ayer discovered 84 supervisory duties of primary or average importance which were performed by over 50 percent of large groups of superintendents, high-school principals, and elementary school principals.

13. Both Dyer and Ayer found that numerous supervisory duties of little or no importance were performed by many public school administrators, and that a considerable number of supervisory duties of major importance were performed by less than 50 percent of the administrators studied.

14. Supervisory duties are distributed throughout the entire field of administration, and all types of administrators perform essentially the same kind of supervisory duties.

15. There are five types of school officers in the field of special supervision: (1) special supervisors; (2) general supervisors; (3) divisional supervisors; (4) departmental directors; and (5) part-time supervisors.

16. The organization of supervision in large city school systems is characterized by wide individual variation.

17. Barr found that the activities of special supervisors in Detroit covered a very extensive array of duties, including large amounts of time devoted to research and study (39 percent) and to administrative duties (31 percent).

18. Studies outside of Detroit made by Briggs agree with the Detroit study save that little emphasis is given elsewhere to research and the experimental study of teaching.

19. Risk found that the leading activity of 159 special supervisors in various parts of the United States was classroom visitation.

20. The following factors underlie the appropriate choice of supervisory duties: (1) the general principles which govern the organization of supervision; (2) the special objectives of a supervisory program; and (3) the personnel for carrying out a program of supervision.

CHAPTER IV

TYPES OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION[1]

THUS FAR, three aspects of the organization of supervision have been discussed, namely: (1) The meaning and necessity of supervision, (2) the functions of supervision, and (3) the duties of supervisory officers. It will be the purpose of this chapter to discuss the leading principles and types of supervisory organization, and to consider the present status of certain features and agencies of elementary supervision.

Organization is the framework built around the materials and personnel of the school system to realize the purpose of education. While there is no "best form" of organization, there are many factors which dictate the types of organization which one may pursue in efficient school administration. Thus, in discussing the organization of supervision, we shall first list certain principles of organization, then we shall describe certain types of organization, and, finally, we shall illustrate these types from current practice.

I. Principles of Organization

From a survey of numerous discussions of school management there seem to stand out eight principles of organization:

1. Centralization of executive responsibility
2. Definition of lines of authority
3. Delegation of authority and responsibility
4. Definite assignment of duties
5. Facility for cooperation and coordination
6. Flexibility of operation
7. Integration of educational outcomes
8. Democracy of spirit and operation.

Centralization of executive responsibility—The necessity for centralization of responsibility is the outstanding lesson which experience has taught to those interested in the promotion of large cooperative undertakings. The best measure of success comes when an organization centers its executive control under one head. This principle applies to a school system as a whole, in which case the superintendent of schools should be made the responsible head; it applies to single departments, in which case the director serves single schools, and in such a case the principal should be the responsible head. Satisfactory unity of plans and coordination of action can only be brought about when the ultimate responsibility for their success lies in the hands of a single individual.

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[1] In connection with this chapter, read: Melby, Ernest O., *Organization and Administration of Supervision.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1929. 152 pp.

Definition of lines of authority—The second principle of organization is the establishment of definite lines of authority. No organization is complete, unless there is provision for the flow of authority from the chief executive to other workers in all parts of the system. It is equally true that no organization is complete that does not offer means of appeal for individuals to superior officials. In establishing lines of action, care must be exercised: (1) to see that every individual in the organization may be expeditiously reached by his superior official, and (2) that no individual receives directions from two supervisors covering the same activity. Unless these two conditions are met, there will be gaps in the line of authority, and everyone will not be reached, or there will be an overlapping of authority and responsibility. In either case, the result is apt to be discord and inefficiency.

Delegation of authority—A third principle of organization is the delegation of authority. One characteristic of a good executive, frequently remarked upon, is his ability to delegate authority. The responsibilities of supervisory and administrative officials are, by the very nature of things, such that certain duties must be assigned to others to be performed. Some supervisory officials err in attempting to retain too much responsibility. They do not delegate a sufficient number of functions to other persons. They become loaded with miscellaneous routine tasks and consequently fail as educational leaders. Other administrative and supervisory officials err by frequently interfering in the plans of those to whom duties have been assigned. They lessen the sense of responsibility of those to whom tasks have been assigned, and in certain instances create definite antagonisms. The delegation of authority is an important principle of organization.

Definite assignment and checking of duties—The lack of definiteness in the assignment of duties, the frequent overlapping of authority between officers, with its attendant indifference on the one hand, and friction on the other, is an important source of inefficiency in school organization. Undivided responsibility and personal accountability are two important characteristics of an efficient school organization. In industrial management, nothing has been so inducive to the improvement and speeding up of production as the functional analysis and assignment of duties. This movement has spread to the field of educational management, where it seems to be fully as valuable as it has been in the industrial world.

The definite assignment of duties implies the checking of performance. A record of duties performed is as important for the person who performs the duties as it is to his superior officer. People frequently assume that they have done something of importance when they have not. A record of acts performed stimulates activity and encourages teachers, principals, and supervisors alike to higher levels of achievement.

Facility for cooperation—Owing to the segregating effect of the functional assignment of duties, there is need for a counteracting principle of organization, namely, facility for cooperation. All school activities eventually center in the development of individual children, and, while it is possible and highly profitable to assign different educational duties to separate school officers, there are numerous occasions when two or more lines of service come into contact in the same place at the same time, or with the same personnel. It then becomes necessary to adjust the separate educational procedures to fit the common educational situation. Situations of this character can only be met by cooperative consideration of the educational procedures and types of leadership which are involved.

To facilitate the cooperative activities of teachers, principals, and supervisors, a certain amount of definite machinery, such as group meetings, interlocking committees, study groups, and advisory councils, will need to be provided in the well-organized school system. Thus, means should be provided by which teachers, principals, and supervisors may meet on a democratic basis to discuss the problems, needs, aspirations, complaints, teamwork, and other factors which enter into the daily, monthly, and yearly planning of the school program. One point of view from which the efficiency of school organization may be viewed is that of facility for cooperation.

Flexibility of operation—A correlate of the preceding principles is that of flexibility of operation. Taken in connection with an administrative organization, which provides definitely for fixed responsibility, specific duty assignment, stipulated lines of cooperation, and deliberate plans for educational integration, each and all of which have a natural tendency to harden into stereotyped procedure—under these circumstances, flexibility of operation assumes a degree of importance which raises it to the level of other standards.

The large human element, which enters into the work of supervision, makes it necessary and desirable to allow for individual differences and needs which exist in the training and personality of various teachers, principals, and supervisors under employment. In the course of a year, it will ordinarily be necessary to make numerous adjustments on the basis of these differences. This procedure is not merely to avoid trouble, but also to safeguard individual freedom of thought and action and to make for greater progress. Initiative and personality must not be crushed by static rules of procedure.

Integration of educational outcomes—The seventh standard of efficiency in the administrative organization of supervision is the integration of educational outcomes. This standard is very closely allied to the standard of facility for cooperation, and the same factors of organization which effect the improvement of the one are more than likely to react favorably to the other. Cooperation, however, pertains particularly to the day-by-day efforts of the various members of the educational staff to work in harmony in the accomplishment of their assigned duties. Integration, on the other hand, refers to the final process of bringing together the various educational forces, more or less independently at work, in several grades and departments and over a period of years, so that the final educational product is an intelligently unified outcome, directed toward definitely established goals of instruction, and not a mere smattering of disassociated knowledge, habits, and ideals. Without such integration it is impossible to arrive at the major aims of education. The degree to which supervisory organization raises its standard of integrated outcomes, although not always easy to ascertain, is the best single mark of a high type of supervisory organization.

Democracy of spirit and procedure—Closely associated with principles five and six above is the principle of democracy of procedure. Whatever the type of organization provided, it should stimulate initiative, self-reliance, and a sense of responsibility in the development and interpretation of instructional policies by teachers, principals, and supervisors alike. These qualities of organization are essential to the ultimate well-being of the school system. Initiative, self-reliance, and sense of responsibility are not qualities that can readily be put on and off for the occasion, but are qualities which come where there is a mental understanding between teachers, principals, and supervisors, developed through democratically administered and long-time programs for the improvement of instruction. The human element in supervision is important and must be dealt with sympathetically. It is the aim of organization to achieve the objectives of education with the least waste of energy and the greatest amount of satisfaction to all concerned. With definite allocation of functions, and lines of authority defined, the best type of organization is that which provides democratic leadership in a group of co-workers to the end that the pupils of the school may make the largest possible growth in desirable knowledges, skills, attitudes, and ideals.

II. Types of Organization[1]

There are a number of different types of organization that one might set up, each depending upon the needs of the locality represented and the particular point of view of the observer. While these several types of organization may conform to the principles of organization laid down in the preceding section, they may differ materially in structure. There are, of course, in current practice very few pure types of organizations. Current practice represents, for the most part, composite organization. It is, however, sometimes useful to single out certain of these types of organization for purposes of discussion and analysis. In the discussion to follow, we shall recognize three types of supervisory organization; namely,

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[1] In reading this section, the following references will be of interest:

1. Ayer, Fred C.; and Barr, A. S., *The Organization of Supervision*, Chapters VI and VII. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1928.
2. Barr, A. S.; and Burton, William H., *The Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 55-68, "Statistical Studies of Present Practice in the Organization of Administration." New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1926.
3. Nutt, Hubert Wilbur, *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*, Chapters V-IX. Richmond, Johnson Publishing Company, 1928.

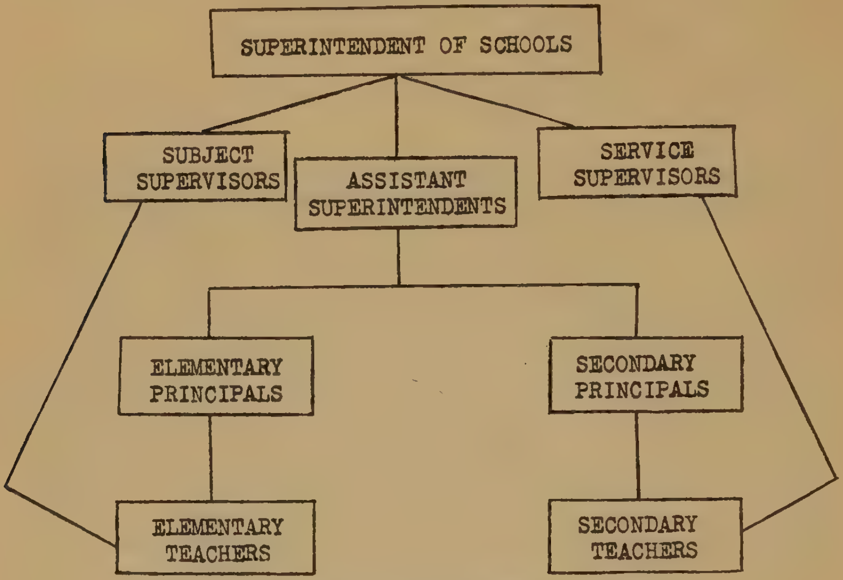
1. The dualistic system
2. The line and staff system
3. The coordinate system.

The dualistic system—The dualistic system is a common type of organization. By this plan the teacher is directly responsible to both principal and supervisor. The principal has somewhat general charge of the building, including attendance, discipline, program of studies, promotions, supplies, equipment, and janitorial services; and the supervisor has charge of the improvement of instruction in the several subjects and grades.

Supervision, as the improvement of teaching, is a concept of recent origin. A number of new subjects, such as music, drawing, manual training, and home economics, were added to the school curriculum about 1870; and, inasmuch as neither the principal nor the regular teachers were prepared to administer instruction in these new subjects, they were necessarily placed in the hands of specialists, first operating as special teachers and later as special supervisors directly responsible to the superintendent of schools. These subjects became known as special subjects. Later, other subjects and other supervisors were added. Principals were, for the time being, absorbed in other matters which appeared to them more important. As the supervision movement grew, principals, too, became actively engaged in classroom supervision. The result was a dual system of supervision; and the school was divided into regular and special subjects, with the principal responsible for the first and the supervisor responsible for the second, or with both supervisors and principals responsible and functions undefined. Many school systems operate today under this dual plan of organization with divided responsibility and dual allegiance.

In addition to the dualistic notion of supervision, this system of supervision is based upon the concept that special supervision is external or supplementary rather than intrinsic or essential to school organization. The truly essential elements of an efficient school organization are contained, according to this notion, in the teacher-principal-superintendent combination. Accordingly, supervision is esteemed to be an adventitious growth rather than an organic part of school life. Special supervision, thrifty enough during periods of financial prosperity, is cut down or eliminated during times of financial depression. The accessory position of the supervisor is apparent and is in contrast to the more fundamental positions of the teacher, principal, and superintendent. The position of the supervisor, under the dualistic plan of organization, is brought out in Figure I which is a schematized diagram of this general type of supervision. (See next page for Figure I.)

FIGURE I.—THE DUALISTIC TYPE OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION



(Connecting lines indicate direction of authority)

The line and staff organization—The line and staff organization recognizes two types of workers, namely, line officers and staff officers.

1. Staff officers are technical experts in charge of service or subject departments or departments including groups of subjects. A complete set of service departments would probably include: (1) A department of statistics and records; (2) a personnel department charged with the selection, assignment, and evaluation of the personnel; (3) a department of tests and measurements, charged with measuring, grading, and classifying pupils; (4) a curriculum department, charged with the selection and organization of subject-matter; (5) a department of method, charged with the study of teaching and learning procedures; (6) a department of textbooks, supplies, and equipment, charged with the selection, distribution, and evaluation of textbooks, supplies, and equipment; (7) a building department, charged with planning, constructing, and equipping new buildings; and (8) a department of expenditures, charged with budget making and financial management. An organization of subject departments might include one department for each of the several school subjects, such as music, arthmetic, art, geography, and the like.

2. The line officers are executives, such as: department heads within a school, building principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents. They are in charge of departments in a school, single buildings, groups of buildings, or major divisions of the educational system.

3. Contrasting the two, we may say that staff officers are advisory ex-

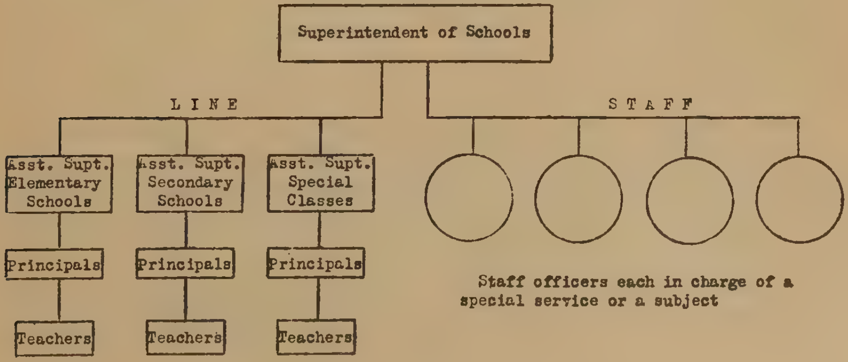
perts, directly responsible to and operating through the superintendent of schools. Staff officers have no administrative authority over line officers or teachers. The line officers are administrative executives clothed with power. The flow of authority is from superintendent, or assistant superintendent, to principals, to teachers. Dualism of control is thus eliminated, the policy is accepted of a single executive head being followed throughout all departments and levels of administration. On the other hand, expert technical services involved in supervision are provided for through the organization of the staff departments, either for services or subjects. The values and benefits accruing from the work of these specialists are introduced into the school system through the superintendent or an assistant designated for the purpose. Line officers, then, systematically operate the educational program. Obviously, under this system, supervision may be emphasized or subordinated, depending upon the policy and point of view of the superintendent.

The organization of supervision by services needs little explanation. Each service department serves the entire system. On the other hand, when supervision is organized on the subject basis, two or more plans appear. A common one is the so-called vertical plan, special supervisors being responsible for the instructional conditions in a given subject for all grades. Another is the divisional plan, that is, subject supervisors being responsible for a subject only within a given school division, such as the elementary or secondary divisions.

It may be said in passing that sometimes one of the staff departments is itself entitled the department of supervision or of instruction. This somewhat confuses thinking about the plan, but actually in no wise modifies its fundamentals.

The Detroit organization is a good illustration of the line and staff system. A schematic plan for the administration of supervision on the line and staff basis is shown in Figure II.

FIGURE II.—A SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF LINE AND STAFF ORGANIZATION


Superintendent of Schools
LINE
STAFF
Asst. Supt. Elementary Schools
Asst. Supt. Secondary Schools
Asst. Supt. Special Classes
Principals
Principals
Principals
Teachers
Teachers
Teachers
Staff officers each in charge of a special service or a subject

The coordinate system—The coordinate system of supervision has been organized upon the educational theory that the departmental activities of subject and service supervisors and the administrative activities of elementary and secondary school principals are coordinate functions in the general educational program. Both principals and staff officers work cooperatively under the guidance of divisional officers (elementary, secondary, and special class), who are members of the primary administrative staff. The primary administrative staff is made up of assistant or deputy superintendents whose chief function is to integrate into a unified educational outcome the work of the various coordinate line and staff officers who are to work cooperatively under their direction.

Under this system, the local principal of a building in charge of institutional supervision is held to be functioning at the same organic level as the director of a special department in charge of a subject or a service. As supervisors, both principal and director are assumed to be equally interested in the improvement of educational procedure; as administrators, each is assigned coordinate responsibility—the principal over a group of teachers and pupils, the director of a department over a group of assistants and special services; and as co-workers, they are expected to cooperate deliberately, working at the same administrative level and each with authority over his own special field under conditions set up by the superior primary administrative staff. The coordinate system places little emphasis upon developing supervision and administration separately as distinct educational services leading to separate sets of school officers in charge of each, but instead assigns its duties upon a purely functional basis, grouping them around two major coordinate forms of service, namely, departmental and institutional. Seattle, Cleveland, and San Francisco are good examples of the coordinate divisional type of organization. An illustration of the administration of supervision on this basis is exhibited in Figure III. (See page 57 for Figure III.)

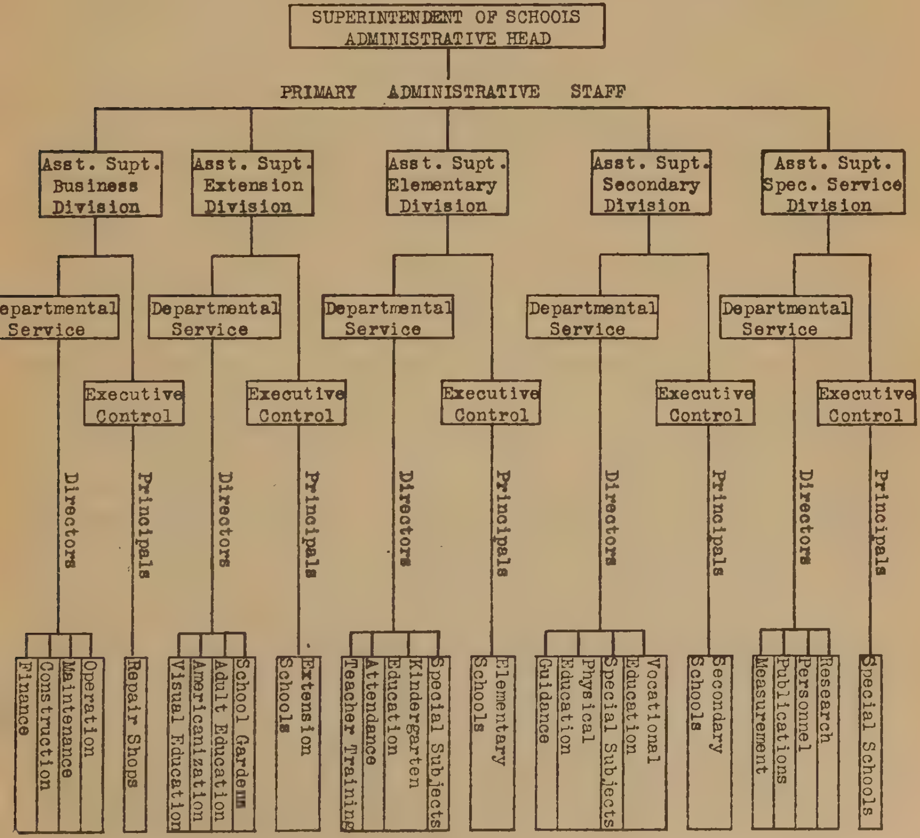
Comparing and contrasting the two types of supervisory organization we may point out that the line and staff system emphasizes differentiation and specialization in the services of administrators and technical experts. The coordinate system emphasizes cooperation and integration. These are points of strength.

The weakness of the line and staff system in its extreme form is that it hinders the cooperation of line and staff officers in the solution of common problems, and does not encourage creative contributions on the part of line officers. The weakness of the coordinate system in its extreme form is that it encourages the overlapping of authority and discourages specialization.

As a matter of fact, however, these schemes are rarely found in extreme form. The weaknesses above are largely corrected in practical situations by adaptations and local administrative devices. The general line of solution for line and staff weakness is the formation of interlocking committees and other integrating agencies. The correction of the weakness in the coordinate system lies along the line of the more specific allocation of duties and the formation of interlocking committees and conferences of people working at all levels.

Each of these systems is practical and workable. Which one is selected will depend quite largely on the actual needs and traditional set-up of the given system. Whichever scheme could be more easily constructed upon the existing practices, personnel, and conditions would probably be the best for a given school system.

FIGURE III.—AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE COORDINATE TYPE OF ORGANIZATION


SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
ADMINISTRATIVE HEAD
PRIMARY ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF
Asst. Supt. Business Division
Asst. Supt. Extension Division
Asst. Supt. Elementary Division
Asst. Supt. Secondary Division
Asst. Supt. Spec. Service Division
epartmental Service
Departmental Service
Departmental Service
Departmental Service
Departmental Service
Executive Control
Executive Control
Executive Control
Executive Control
Executive Control
Directors
Principals
Directors
Principals
Directors
Principals
Directors
Principals
Directors
Principals
Finance
Construction
Maintenance
Operation
Repair Shops
Visual Education
Americanization
Adult Education
School Gardens
Extension Schools
Teacher Training
Attendance
Education
Kindergarten
Special Subjects
Elementary Schools
Guidance
Physical Education
Special Subjects
Vocational Education
Secondary Schools
Measurement
Publications
Personnel
Research
Special Schools

III. The Organization of Supervision in Small School Systems[1]

The types of supervisory organization for small school systems are not greatly different from those found in large school systems. The principles of organization are the same. In the large school system, with its large administrative staff, there is greater specialization in the assignment of functions than in small school systems where one individual is frequently responsible for a number of activities, but the general administrative procedure is similar. While there are in small school systems certain variations from the types of organization set up in the preceding section dealing with the organization of supervision in large school systems, these differences are found, for the most part, in the details of organization rather than in the types themselves, or principles listed in the preceding section.

Supervision in small school systems a difficult problem—While the need for teacher training, curriculum construction, and the improvement of instruction is always great in the small school system, the problem of the efficient administration of supervision is a difficult one. The teaching staff in the small school system is relatively small, and there is consequently less opportunity for specialization. The number of teachers housed in each building is usually not large, and there is consequently less opportunity for the development of the principalship. Where there is free time for supervision, this time is frequently spent upon administrative matters, routine, and cases of school discipline. The superintendent is frequently both superintendent and principal. There are usually no special supervisors. There may be, under more favored conditions, two or three special teachers of such subjects as penmanship, art, music, physical education, home economics, or manual training. Such conditions as these make the problem of supervision in the small school system a difficult one.

Elements of weakness in the supervisory organization of small school systems—In the first place, there is frequently little or no consciousness, on the part of the superintendent, of the importance of organization. Following the traditions of the office, the superintendent accepts the situation as it is, and devotes major portions of his time to the appointment of teachers, the planning of buildings, the getting of money, and meeting the community. With these tasks and without the assistance of a well-planned organization, little time is left for supervision. In the absence of definite community agitation to the contrary, supervision is often neglected.

In the second place, the small school system is frequently without specialists in supervision. There may be a traveling teacher or two for such subjects as art, music, manual training, or physical education, but, as a rule, no attempt is made to provide systematically departmental specialists for special and academic subjects, or functional specialists for curriculum construction, tests and measurements, and research. Realizing the impossibility of employing full-time specialists, the superintendent frequently assumes the point of view that the specialist is unnecessary, and depends upon himself or his principals for the supervision of instruction.

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[1] In reading this section, the following references will be of interest:

1. Ayer, Fred C.; and Barr, Arvil S., *The Organization of Supervision*, Chapter VIII. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1928.
2. Nutt, Hubert Wilbur, *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*, Chapter IV, "Organization for Supervision in Small School Systems." Richmond, Johnson Publishing Company, 1928.

In the third place, in the small school system, the buildings are frequently small, there are few teachers, and the principalship is poorly developed. The movement to house schools in larger school plants has brought better trained principals into these positions and has generally improved the quality of supervision provided.

The principal of a small school will need a proportionately smaller amount of time for supervision than the principal in a larger school. If the teachers in small schools are to receive amounts of supervision approximately equal to teachers in large schools, the total time needed for supervision in these schools will be less. To free the principal of a six-teacher school, for example, of all teaching responsibilities in order that he may devote his time to supervision is neither wise nor economical. The amount of freedom that the principal is given from teaching, for supervision, should depend upon the number of teachers supervised. No school system is so small or so poor that it cannot afford some time for supervision.

Types of supervisory organization—While there are many elements common to the organization of supervision in small and large school systems, there are, necessarily, differences growing out of the dissimilarity of the two situations. There are four distinct types of supervision utilized in small school systems, namely, (1) the dualistic system, (2) the coordinate organization with instructional committees, (3) the line and staff organization with general supervision, and (4) the line and staff organization with supervising teachers and special supervisors.

The dualistic system—This type of organization has already been described in the discussion of large city organization and will not be further discussed here.

Coordinate organization with instructional committees—Many superintendents, realizing the importance of supplementing the regular line organization by some sort of special supervision, and realizing the economic impossibility of employing a large supervising staff, have gone about the matter of providing expert assistance through the development of instructional committees: Committees on curriculum construction; committees for the selection and appraisal of textbooks, supplies, and equipment; and committees on research.

One city, for example, organized the entire teaching personnel into committees for the selection and organization of subject-matter. Interlocking subject and division committees were established for the several subjects and for the four major divisions of the school system, namely, primary grades, intermediate grades, junior and senior high-school grades. The chairmen of these several committees, working under the director of research, constituted the central steering committee on the selection and reorganization of subject-matter. It was the function of the chairmen of subject-matter committees to unify the work in a given subject for all grades, and the function of division chairmen to correlate the work for all subjects in a given division. The central steering committee determined the broader instructional policies involved and passed upon the material prepared in all sub-committees. These committees have met now for three years, and inestimable good has come to the school system concerned.

Line and staff organization with general supervision—Many cities employ general supervisors for primary grades, grammar grades, or the elementary grades, to assist in the supervision of the "regular" elementary school studies. Such supervisors are charged with various responsibilities. In some cases the general supervisor is a semi-administrative official assuming the duties of an assistant superintendent. As such, he has both supervisory and administrative authority and is the administrative superior of the principal. In other schools the functions of the general supervisor are non-administrative, in which case the functions of the general supervisor are limited to the supervision of instruction. The greatest shortcoming of this plan of supervision, as it is usually performed, lies in the large amount of duplication in the functions of principals and supervisors, both being generalists and approaching the problem from similar points of view. This situation is most likely to exist where the supervision provided is of the inspectorial type. In such cases the presence of a general supervisor reflects the presence of poorly qualified principals.

If the superintendent must be assisted in the discharge of his supervisory responsibilities, an effective plan to accomplish this end is to appoint an assistant superintendent or director who is trained in research, curriculum construction, and teaching procedures; who may act in the capacity of an expert in these functions, giving assistance to teachers and principals alike. Many new services have come to demand a share of the superintendent's time, such as tests and measurements, curriculum construction, educational guidance and pupil accounting, and research. In large school systems, each of these services has its own well-developed department and corps of specialists. While such specialization is out of the question in the small school system, it does not mean that nothing can be done. A generalist trained in supervision with specialization in these functions can be of real assistance. The services here described, it should be noted, are different from those ordinarily performed by the grade supervisor. These functions should fall largely upon building principals. The value of general supervision is determined pretty much by the types of functions performed by the supervisor concerned.

Line and staff organization with supervising teachers and special supervisors—Some school superintendents have met the problem of providing special supervision by the use of a system of supervising teachers. The supervising teacher is any outstanding teacher in the school system chosen because of his success in his own field of instruction to give expert assistance to other teachers. The supervising teacher retains his teaching responsibilities, being at the same time part-time teacher and supervisor. He is officially freed from certain classroom duties to render helpful service to less experienced and less successful teachers. The amount of time given by him to supervision will depend upon the number of teachers supervised and the amount of supervision needed. His classroom is the laboratory in which new ideas are evolved, perfected, and prepared for general use throughout the school system. It is a demonstration center.

Advantages of the supervising teacher system—The supervising teacher system offers certain advantages over other systems of supervision: (1) In cities of a sufficient size, special supervision is thus made possible for all subjects, art, music, civics, arithmetic, reading, physical education, and the rest, at a minimum cost. The need for special supervision for all subjects has already been set forth. (2) The plan assures a fund of practical ideas, plans, and materials for use in the school system. That is, such plans, procedures, and materials as are recommended are first tried out under actual classroom conditions. They represent workable ideas rather than theories. (3) The specialist is kept in close touch with actual classroom conditions. Critic teachers in teacher-training institutions, almost without exception, have found it necessary to teach one or two classes daily to retain a sympathetic understanding of the problems of actual teaching. (4) Such a plan avoids the embarrassment of an unattached group of specialists. It is easy enough to see what teachers do; it is easy enough to see what the superintendent does; but it is not always easy for laymen to see what supervisors do. There is somehow a feeling on the part of the public that to supply teachers is all the public can afford, and that individuals not teaching are less essential, less important, and less well employed. It is always difficult for the superintendent to justify any considerable number of "floating" specialists. In times of financial ease the number of attaches to the central office is usually increased, and decreased in times of financial stringency. The attachment of the supervising teacher to a definite teaching position gives special supervision a kind of fixedness and stability that supervision needs to enjoy.

IV. The Supervision of Instruction in Rural Schools

Because of the relatively inexperienced character, the low standards of professional preparation, and the rapid turnover of the teaching population in rural schools, there is no unit of our public schools in greater need of careful supervision than the school in rural districts. The large body of teachers get their first teaching experience in rural schools. Regardless of the adequacy of their training, these teachers are relatively immature, and the transition from the training school to the classroom is a difficult one. There is probably no group that needs so much and receives so little in the way of systematic guidance as do rural teachers. There is, also, no unit which offers a more difficult supervisory problem than does the rural school. The major difficulties are territorial; the territorial unit must be much larger in rural districts than in urban districts; financially, the per capita wealth of the population is less; and community attitude is lacking; rural communities have not been so persistent in their demands for good schools as urban communities.

Considerable progress has, however, been made in many rural communities through administrative reorganization. The salient features of this movement are: (1) *The consolidation of schools.* Between 1894 and 1910 forty-one states authorized the consolidation of schools, and at the same time twenty-five authorized the expenditure of school money for the transportation of pupils.[1] At present all the states have laws for consolidation,[2] and the laws of 43 states specifically legalize transportation. In the other five states, transportation is made possible by a broad interpretation of the powers and duties of school authorities.[3] The building of hard roads and the development of improved methods of transportation have facilitated the movement. Consolidation has usually meant better housing, better equipment, better teaching, and better administration. The movement has been particularly beneficial from the standpoint of supervision, inasmuch as it has brought together under one roof a sufficiently large teaching corps to make possible the employment of supervising principals, who devote major portions of their time to supervision and the improvement of teaching. (2) *The tendency toward a larger administrative unit.* Where the school district, town, and township units were formerly the accepted ones for school administration, the county, superintendency union, and state are now most frequently recommended. The district system of management has been generally condemned by educational officials; it is expensive, ultra-conservative, and educationally inefficient. While town and township units are yet common for most states, the county unit is recommended. This unit is small enough to maintain responsiveness to local needs, and large enough to make it capable of rendering effective educational service. (3) *The professionalization of rural school administration.* The tendency seems to be away from the elective system and toward the appointive system of choosing primary administrative officials. More progressive communities now provide for the election of a county board of education of from five to seven members (preferably five) who have many of the same powers and functions as a city board of education; namely, planning building programs, fixing district boundaries, employing teachers, and passing on courses of study. This board elects a superintendent of schools, who has charge of all of the schools concerned within the administrative unit. The position is free from political and residence requirements. The tendency has been toward the selection of officials with special administrative and supervisory training for this work.

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[1] *Consolidation of Schools and Transportation of Pupils,* U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1923, No. 41, pp. 16-17.

[2] *Biennial Survey of Education 1924-1926,* U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1928, No. 25, p. 130.

[3] U. S. Bureau of Education, *Essential Features of Laws Concerning Transportation of Pupils,* Rural School Leaflet No. 8, November, 1922.

The organization of supervision in rural schools—The type of organization pursued in the supervision of instruction in rural schools reflects materially the type of community represented. In thickly populated communities with hard roads, the supervision provided is not greatly different from that provided in city school systems; usually, however, with a somewhat smaller supervisory staff. In sparsely settled and educationally backward communities, there may be little or no supervision provided, the primary executive official spending most of his time upon official matters, clerical work, and inspection. The sparsely settled community introduces a new problem into the organization of supervision. Those communities that have followed a program of consolidation have frequently succeeded in the development of a responsible principalship. In more advanced communities of this sort, a general supervisor or assistant superintendent may be employed to provide training and instructional services. The training program is centered more immediately upon the principalship, with weekly or bi-weekly meetings, and demonstrations provided for this purpose. Where the schools to be supervised are in sparsely settled districts composed mainly of one-room rural schools, the zone system of supervision has been introduced with good results. A zone is any normal unit of rural schools that may be thrown together. Pittman has established the value of this plan under experimental conditions.[1]

Except in centers of dense population, little special supervision, except through state departments, has been provided the rural schools. The supervisor is usually a general supervisor. The type of organization pursued may be either of the dualistic type, already described above in our discussion of types of supervisory organization in city school systems, or line and staff. The coordinate divisional plan is not found in rural schools.

State supervision of rural schools [2]—The local program for the supervision of instruction is often supplemented by state supervision of instruction. Two distinct attitudes have been taken in the matter of state supervision of instruction. In many instances, the state department of instruction has taken the position that its functions are primarily inspectorial. Certain legislation has been passed and certain regulations have been set up by state boards of education, and it is the chief function of the state department of public instruction to supervise the enforcement of such legislation. On the other hand, many state departments of instruction have assumed, in addition to this function, the business of supervision and the improvement of instruction. In such instances, the staff and supervisory activities are not greatly different from those of a large city system, except as conditioned by territorial consideration. There may be divisional superintendents, special supervisors, and service departments. Public opinion seems to have gradually crystallized in the direction of a well-equipped state department for the supervision of instruction.

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[1] Pittman, M. S., *The Value of School Supervision.* Baltimore, Warwick & York, Inc., 1921. 130 pp.

[2] See: *Educational Supervision,* First Yearbook of the National Conference on Educational Method. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Chapter II, "State Supervision of Public Schools in New York"; Chapter III, "The Plan of Supervision in Maryland"; Chapter IV, "State Supervision of Education in Minnesota"; Chapter V, "State Supervision of Elementary Schools as Accomplished through County Supervision in Alabama"; Chapter VI, "County Supervisory Programs in Wisconsin."

The training program of state departments of education—The program for the improvement of instruction has included new standards of building and equipment, new standards in the certification of teachers, reading circle work, institutes, state and regional conferences, research studies and bulletins, course-of-study making, and the development of demonstration centers. In many instances, state departments of instruction have organized departments of teacher training to supervise the training activities of teacher-training institutions. In some cases, these institutions have not only reorganized the traditional course for the training of teachers, but have organized placement and follow-up services to assist teachers, particularly during the probationary teaching period.

V. Intra-Building Organization

Throughout this discussion the importance of the principal and intra-building organization has been stressed. The principal is the keystone to the supervision of instruction. The principalship has rapidly developed during the last decade, changing from a routine position to one demanding the highest type of instructional skill and leadership. In most school systems, the building principal has been made responsible for the instructional conditions in his building, representing the central supervisory staff in all matters of administration and instruction.

This increase in the importance of the principalship has been followed by new interest in intra-building organization. Three types of organization are found: (1) Committees of teachers, (2) supervising heads of departments, and (3) general supervision. Some principals have approached the problem of supervision and the improvement of teaching through the organization of committees of teachers. Working under the direction of the principal, these committees build courses of study, select textbooks, experiment, and determine standards of performance. In some cases, the principal has approached the problem of supervision through the appointment of supervising heads of departments. These individuals are selected because of their outstanding performance as teachers and their special equipment in subject-matter, method, and supervision. They act as intra-building supervisors for the fields to which they have been assigned. Many of the larger elementary schools as well as the junior and senior high schools have come to follow this plan of organization. The work of these supervising specialists is correlated by the principal, who determines the instructional policies. Weekly or bi-weekly meetings are the rule.

A third type of intra-building supervision is the employment of general supervision. This supervision may be given by the principal himself, an assistant principal, or a director of instruction especially appointed for this purpose. Its effectiveness depends upon the energy, foresight, and training of the person concerned.

VI. Special Features and Agencies of Elementary Supervision [1]

The following section presents a subjective evaluation of six direct agencies of supervision used by general elementary supervisors for the improvement of teachers in service. It also includes the scope of work and professional qualifications of general elementary supervisors.

An evaluation of six direct agencies of supervision used by general elementary supervisors[2] *for the improvement of teachers in service*—This study was made to determine how these six direct agencies of supervision: (1) classroom visitation, (2) directed teaching, (3) demonstration teaching, (4) directed observation, (5) individual conference, and (6) teachers' meetings, including group conferences, are used by general elementary supervisors.

Answers were sought to the following questions:

1. What is the scope of the general elementary supervisor's work and what are his professional qualifications?
2. What is present practice, or how and under what conditions are general elementary supervisors using the direct agencies of supervision to improve teachers in service in city systems? In rural systems?
3. What significant differences are there in the practices of rural and city supervisors?
4. To what extent, in the opinion of specialists, superintendents, and teachers, should each of these direct supervisory agencies be used, and what is its relative merit in a well-balanced program of supervision?

Method of study—Supervisory conditions and practices of two hundred representative supervisors—one hundred city and one hundred rural—were reported on a rather detailed checking list. Representative groups of specialists in supervision, superintendents employing general elementary supervisors, and teachers working in supervised systems were asked to estimate the extent of use and value of certain supervisory devices on a four-point rating scale. These ratings were supplemented by those of the supervisors, who indicated the use they were making of each device and their estimate of its value.

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[1] This section summarizes the essential findings in the following thesis:

Southall, Maycie, *Direct Agencies of Supervision as Used by General Elementary Supervisors,* Contributions to Education, No. 66. Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930.

[2] The term "general elementary supervisor" is used in this study to designate the supervisory official on the superintendent's staff who supervises one or more of the elementary grades—that is, assistant superintendents, directors of elementary education, and supervisors of various grade groups.

How the findings of this study may be used—It is hoped that the results summarized in subsequent pages of this section may be of service in the following ways:

1. Furnish supervisors with tentative norms for self-criticism.
2. Give prospective supervisors the benefit of the supervisory experiences of others.
3. Provide superintendents of schools with a basis for comparing supervisory conditions and procedures in their systems with those in others.
4. Furnish instructors of courses in supervision with specific data for constructive criticisms and recommendations.
5. Provide students of supervision with factual material which should prompt thinking and experimentation that will lead to more plausible practices.

Scope of Work and Professional Qualifications of the General Elementary Supervisor

Information from one hundred city and one hundred rural supervisors as to the scope of their work and professional qualifications was analyzed. The cases studied represented approximately one-sixth of the city and one-seventh of the rural school systems in which general elementary supervisors were employed in 1926.

What is the unit of supervision?—Eighty-seven percent of the general elementary supervisors in city systems are responsible for the supervision of their respective block or group of grades throughout the city; ten percent have supervision of a district; two percent, of a township; and one percent, of a certain portion or section of the city.

Eighty-four percent of the rural supervisors supervise their respective horizontal block or group of grades throughout the entire county; six percent have a school district; five percent have one or more townships; four percent have a fractional part of the county; and one percent have a certain zone within the county.

These facts show that the superintendent usually delegates to one person the general supervision of his respective unit throughout the city or county, as the case may be.

Titles of general elementary supervisors—In the one hundred representative city school systems studied, general supervisors are known by seventeen different titles. Elementary supervisor, the most frequent title, is used to designate the supervisor of seven different groups of grades; primary supervisor, the second in frequency, represents six different grade groups; and assistant superintendent, the third, represents eight different groups of grades. Six of these seventeen supervisory titles were restricted to the primary block—Kindergarten-Grade IV; four were restricted to the upper elementary—Grades III-VIII; while the other seven were used to name the supervisor of different grade groups throughout the elementary school. In the one hundred representative rural school systems included in this study, "county supervisor" is the title of forty percent of the general supervisors. Thirteen different titles are used by the other sixty percent. Elementary supervisor is second in frequency of use, and assistant superintendent, third. In ten percent of the cases, the supervisor is known as a supervising or helping teacher.

These data show clearly that there is no uniformity in the provisions made for general supervision in either city or county systems; neither is there any standard title for the person to whom the superintendent of school delegates the supervision of any specific unit or block of grades. These facts are also borne out by Table 16 which presents data as to types of supervisory organization in 549 school systems.

TABLE 16.—TYPES OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION[1]

(Distributed by Size of Cities)

Cities	Replies		Percent of cities maintaining general supervision for kindergartens and primary grades	Number of each type of supervisory organization						
	Number	Percent of total number of cities		Combined kindergarten-primary or kindergarten-elementary	Separate primary and elementary	Separate kindergarten primary and elementary	Only elementary	Only primary	Only kindergarten	Total
Of 100,000 population or more.....	68	100	97	31	1	22	2	4	6	66
Of 30,000 to 100,000.	176	97	77	63	14	8	21	20	11	137
Of 10,000 to 30,000..	428	82	39	54	8	6	45	40	14	167
Under 10,000.......	1,305	62	14	47	13	5	50	62	2	179
Total.........	1,977	......	....	195	36	41	118	126	33	549

What grades are supervised by general elementary supervisors?—In city school systems, forty-five percent of the general supervisors are responsible for all the elementary grades of their system. While the elementary grades range from kindergarten through the eighth in some systems, the first six grades, including kindergarten when there is one, are the grades most frequently grouped for supervision. An additional five percent have general supervision of all the elementary grades and one or more of the high-school grades. Thirty-six percent are responsible for one or more of the primary grades—the first three grades and kindergarten, when there is one, being the grades most frequently combined. While only fourteen percent supervise just the upper grades, there are six different groupings made of grades three through eight.

In rural school systems, 77 percent of the general supervisors supervise all the elementary grades. In the largest number of cases, these are grades one through seven. An additional seven percent also supervise one or more of the high-school grades. Eleven percent supervise only primary grades, the first through the third being the most common unit. The other five percent supervise only the upper elementary or the upper elementary and one or more of the high-school grades.

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[1] Taken from: *Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education in 1924-1926,* U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1927, No. 28, p. 43.

What is the average number of teachers per general supervisor?—In city school systems, the number of teachers per general supervisor ranges from 14 to 852, with a median of 111.

In rural school systems, the number of teachers per general supervisor ranges from 25 to 562, with an average of 89.

Training of general elementary supervisors—Sixty-seven percent of the supervisors, in the one hundred city school systems studied, are college graduates, 22 percent are normal school graduates, and nine percent are only high-school graduates. Of these city supervisors, one percent hold a doctor's degree; 33 percent hold a master's degree; 33 percent, a bachelor's degree; and 31 percent do not hold a degree. (Two percent failed to indicate the highest institutions of which they were graduates and the highest degree now held.)

In rural school systems, 25 percent of general elementary supervisors hold a master's degree; 37 percent a bachelor's degree; and 36 percent do not hold a degree. (Two percent did not answer.)

Experience of general elementary supervisors—Practically all of the general elementary supervisors, both city and rural, have been elementary teachers; one-third have been elementary principals; about a third have been critic teachers; and one-ninth have been college instructors.

The average city supervisor has been supervising 7.7 years. Although city supervisors range in supervisory experience from 1 to 26 years, only one-fourth have been supervising more than 12.5 years. The total educational experience of city supervisors ranges from 5 to 52 years, with a median of 26.5 years. Only one percent have had less than ten years' experience, while three perecent have had more than 50 years.

The average rural supervisor has been supervising only 4.9 years. Even though the range is from 1 to 18 years, only one-fourth have had more than 7.9 years of supervisory experience. The total educational experience of the rural supervisors ranges from 7 to 38 years with a median of 16.2 years. Only 11 percent have had less than 10 years' experience.

Number of years general elementary supervisors have held their present positions—The average city supervisor has been supervising 7.7 years; she has been in her present position 6.5 years or all but 1.2 years of this time. The average rural supervisor has been supervising 4.9 years; she has been in her present position 4.1 or all but .8 years of this time.

Furthermore, the average city supervisor worked in the system 4.4 years before she was made supervisor; and the average rural supervisor, 1.4 years. A study of the relation of the number of years in present position to the number of years as supervisor of that system, shows that 57 percent of the city supervisors, and 35 percent of the rural supervisors had been either teachers or principals in the system before being made supervisors. This shows a marked tendency to promote a member of the group to a position of responsibility for the professional improvement of the group. This tendency emphasizes the importance of making adequate professional requirements a prerequisite for a supervisor's certificate and encouraging capable teachers with desirable personal qualifications to take the specialized training.

The typical city supervisor—The representative general elementary supervisor in our city schools is a woman of mature years. She is known by various titles and has had delegated to her the supervision of a certain unit of the elementary grades throughout the city. She has under her supervision 111 teachers and 14 schools. Her supervision is supplemented by that of five special subject supervisors and a part-time supervising principal in each building. For this service she receives an annual salary of $3,050.

She is a graduate of a high school, normal school, and a college of education, a bachelor's degree having been granted in 1924. This degree was secured after she began supervising, and she now has a total of five years of college credit.

Before becoming a supervisor, she had had ten years of experience as an elementary teacher, and nine other years of various types of educational experience. She has been a supervisor for the past eight years, which makes a total of 27 years of educational experience.

She has held her present position for the past six and a half years, and had been either a principal or teacher in the same school system for four years before being made a supervisor.

The typical rural supervisor—The representative general elementary supervisor in our rural systems is, also, a mature woman, but she is approximately ten years younger than the typical city supervisor. Although her title varies, she has supervision of all the elementary grades throughout the county system. Under her supervision there are 88 teachers and 30 schools in which the principal teaches full time. Her services are not supplemented by those of any other supervisory official, and she receives an annual compensation of $2,412.

She has had four and a half years of college training; is a graduate of high school, normal school, and a college of education, having received a bachelor's degree in 1925.

When she began supervising, she had had eleven years of educational experience, seven years of which were as an elementary teacher. She has been a supervisor for the past five years.

She has been in her present position for the past four years, and had been a principal or teacher in the system one and half years before she began supervising.

Present Practice with Regard to the Direct Agencies of Supervision

The term "direct agencies of supervision," as used in this study, was more or less arbitrarily chosen to designate the means supervisors use when dealing directly with teacher activity for the purpose of improvement. The supervisory agencies so classified are: Classroom visitation; directed teaching; demonstration teaching; directed observation; individual conferences; and teachers' meetings, including group conferences. This chapter sets forth present practices relative to the use of each of these direct means of supervision.

I. Classroom Visitation—A Means of Supervision

Scope of visits—The entire city is the area visited by general elementary supervisors in 87 percent of the cities studied; while the county is the unit of visitation in 87 percent of the counties.

Types of visits—The three types of visits reported, named in order of frequency of use, are: Visits on call, or visits in response to requests or invitations; scheduled visits, or visits according to pre-arranged schedule; and dropping-in visits for the purpose of inspection, or for the purpose of follow-up.

Nature of visits—One hundred city supervisors and one hundred rural supervisors were asked to check each of the items in Table 17 which represent the kind of things they do when visiting a teacher. The table shows that one of the purposes which 99 percent of these supervisors have in classroom visitation is "to observe one or more lessons."

TABLE 17.—NATURE OF CLASSROOM VISITS MADE BY GENERAL ELEMENTARY SUPERVISORS

Purpose	Percentage of Frequency of Mention	
	In city systems[1]	In rural systems[1]
To observe one or more lessons	99	99
To do demonstration teaching	70	87
To test the children	72	75
To talk with the teacher about her work without observing	66	71

[1] Total number: 100.

Number, frequency, and distribution of visits—Only five percent of both the city and the rural supervisors reporting make the same number of visits to each teacher. All others make some allowance for individual differences in pro-rating their visits to teachers. New and inexperienced teachers are visited first in 91 percent of the city and 92 percent of the rural systems. Eighty-three percent of the city and 62 percent of the rural supervisors give their major attention to problem teachers.

The minimum number of visits per year made to each teacher ranges from 1 to 40 in city systems, with a median of 4.8; in rural systems, the minimum number is from 1 to 20, with a median of 3.

Length of visits—All of the 200 supervisors reporting, with one exception, make visits of varying length, depending on the needs of the teacher and other variable factors. In city systems, the visits vary from three minutes to several days, while half of the supervisors make visits that are not under 20 minutes nor over 45 minutes in length. In rural school systems, the range is also wide, the visits being from five minutes to several days in length, while half of these supervisors make visits of not less than 30 minutes and not over 120 minutes.

When the visit is for the purpose of observation, most of the supervisors spend not less than one class period in a room. One-half of the city and four-fifths of the rural supervisors practice staying two or more consecutive periods in the same room; while approximately one-fourth of each group often observe a teacher teach, on consecutive days, a series of lessons on some subject or unit.

What do supervisors do when observing classroom teaching?—Ninety-five percent of the city and 88 percent of the rural supervisors report that they enter the classroom without knocking. The majority smile or nod a greeting, but several state that this depends on what is going on when they enter. The place they take in the room also depends on the activity of the children in many cases—but approximately one-half of the city and three-fourths of the rural supervisors usually sit in the rear.

The number of things which supervisors do while observing, as shown by Table 18, indicates that circumstances largely determine practice.

TABLE 18.—ACTIVITIES OF GENERAL ELEMENTARY SUPERVISORS WHILE OBSERVING CLASSROOM TEACHING

Activities	Percentage Using	
	In city systems[1]	In rural systems[1]
1. Ask questions or make contributions at close of period if opportunity is provided	93	78
2. Pass around and see the nature of the work the children are doing	93	76
3. Quietly observe everything without comment during class period	80	85
4. Examine the children's work about the room	80	62
5. Ask questions and make contributions during recitation	62	51
6. Examine teacher's plan books, records, etc	57	50
7. Participate in the recitation as a member of the group	54	46
8. Investigate projects	52	56
9. Take notes or check on observation outline while observing	31	57
10. Take the class and finish the lesson when the teacher is having difficulty	42	37

[1] Total number studied: 100.

Follow-up devices used by supervisors—The value of a supervisor's visit, insofar as the teacher's growth is concerned, largely depends on the nature and amount of follow-up given. Supervisors were asked to check those items listed in Table 19 which they use as follow-up devices after classroom visits.

Table 19 shows that an individual conference with each teacher observed is the most common practice.

TABLE 19.—FOLLOW-UP DEVICES USED BY GENERAL ELEMENTARY SUPERVISORS AFTER A CLASSROOM VISIT

Follow-Ups	Percentage of Supervisors Using	
	In city systems[1]	In rural systems[2]
1. Individual conference with each teacher observed	90	92
2. Helpful materials, books, or articles sent to teacher	85	87
3. Group conferences on general problems	81	81
4. Demonstration lesson by supervisor	60	74
5. Directed observation of successful teaching	72	56
6. Bulletin of suggestions prepared	61	51
7. Bibliography provided on special problems	53	45
8. Written summary of suggestions left with teacher	34	47
9. Stenographic report of illustrative lessons	24	21
10. A checked observation blank is left with the teacher	6	9

[1] Total number reporting: 97.

[2] Total number reporting: 98.

The average city supervisor uses the first seven of the follow-up devices listed in Table 19; while the average rural supervisor uses the first six. A number of supervisors stated that they considered the stenographic reports desirable but lack of funds prohibited their use. The following devices were mentioned one or more times in the section provided for additional suggestions: discuss problems with principal and ask him to do the follow-up; send samples of work from other groups; revisit; send a follow-up letter; teach for the principal and a group of teachers; hold a conference with the teacher and building principal; plan a unit of work with the teacher.

II. Directed Teaching—A Means of Supervision

Directed teaching is one of the devices used in the institutional training of teachers which has only recently been carried over to the training of teachers in service. The term denotes teaching done under the constant direction and guidance of an expert. It may mean directing all the activities involved in preparing and conducting each lesson, or it may mean merely directing a series of special lessons for a specific purpose. While usually considered a step in the training of an inexperienced or beginning teacher, directed teaching is also used to increase the efficiency of experienced teachers with specific weaknesses.

Among the reasons why directed teaching is not a widely used agency for the training of teachers in service are these:

1. It is the most time-consuming of all the supervisory agencies, and this precludes it from the program of many supervisors.
2. Teacher-training requirements in some systems are high enough to exclude most of the teachers needing this type of training.
3. A number of teacher-training institutions furnish supervisors for their graduates during a practice teaching or probationary period.

4. Some school systems furnish special supervisors for their new teachers.
5. Provision is made by some school systems whereby a teacher needing this type of training may be sent back for a brief period of institutional training.

This study shows, however, that directed teaching is used for the in-service training of some teachers by 55 percent of the general city supervisors and 59 percent of the rural. The supervisor usually directs those doing directed teaching, but in a few systems this supervision is given only by the principal. Moreover, in approximately one-fifth of the systems studied the teacher has the help of both the principal and the supervisor during this period of intensive training. The directed teaching periods vary widely in the different systems and within the same system. The longest period reported was two years, and the shortest three days.

The following list, given in order of frequency of use by the two groups combined, shows the types of assistance the supervisors have found it practical to give the teachers doing directed teaching, and also the number of supervisors giving each kind of assistance.

TABLE 20.—TYPES OF ASSISTANCE GIVEN TEACHERS DURING THE DIRECTED TEACHING PERIOD

Assistance Given	Number of Supervisors Using	
	In city systems[1]	In rural systems[2]
1. Help teachers plan in detail one or more lessons or units of work	48	53
2. Discuss the lesson observed	47	52
3. Arrange for some directed observation of skillful teaching	49	49
4. Direct teachers' professional study	42	52
5. Observe the teaching of the lesson or lessons planned together	39	48
6. Discuss lesson plan before each directed teaching period	22	35
7. Provide definite outlines to be followed in making lesson plan	24	32
8. Train teacher in the use of check lists for analytical self-criticism	23	30
9. Require detailed lesson plans during the period of intense training	25	28
10. Ask that lesson plans be kept subject to inspection for as long a period as considered necessary	25	27
11. Provide teacher with stenographic reports of illustrative lessons	18	19

[1] Total number reporting: 55.

[2] Total number reporting: 59.

The first six types of assistance mentioned in Table 20 were used by over half of those supervisors employing directed teaching as a supervisory device. Other types reported one or more times were: to furnish teacher with better teaching materials; to show good pieces of work done by other teachers; to require a working knowledge of local course of study; to teach for him; to lead children to plan for future work; and to ask for a report on definitely assigned readings. It seems probable that supervisors who do not use directed teaching as a supervisory device may perform many of the above mentioned activities, but this report does not include such cases.

III. Demonstration Teaching—A Means of Supervision

Demonstration teaching, as an agency for the improvement of teachers in service, was an innovation of the early stages of supervision in Rhode Island. Henry Barnard, while superintendent of schools of Rhode Island, employed a successful teacher to conduct a demonstration school for the institutes of the states. Lommen [1] gives a detailed account of how this unique demonstration school, consisting of one teacher and twelve pupils in a covered wagon, moved about from place to place for the professional training of teachers in service.

From this very early beginning, the idea of providing teachers with an opportunity of studying better methods and technic has grown until demonstration teaching is used as a means of improving teachers in service by 93 percent of the city and 97 percent of the rural supervisors.

Number of demonstrations—No minimum number of demonstrations is provided for each teacher by two-thirds of the city and over one-half of the rural supervisors. It would seem that while practically all supervisors consider demonstration teaching a valuable means of training teachers in service, it is not believed to be of equal value to all teachers.

Types of demonstration teaching—The types most frequently used and judged most effective by supervisors are:

1. For individual teachers—a demonstration by the supervisor with the teacher's own pupils.
2. For a group of teachers—a capable teacher conducting a demonstration with her own pupils.

Procedure for conducting demonstrations—One hundred city and one hundred rural supervisors were asked to check each of the principles of procedure listed in Table 21 which were in accord with their practice when using demonstration teaching as a supervisory device with individual teachers and with groups of teachers. All but four of these principles, according to Table 21, are used by at least half of the supervisors when conducting group demonstrations; while, in the majority of cases, only six are applied to individual demonstrations.

IV. Directed Observation—A Means of Supervision

When viewed from one angle, directed observation may be considered a phase of demonstration teaching, while from another standpoint demonstration teaching is one form of directed observation. The chief distinction is that directed observation refers to a consecutive series of demonstrations which are used as an intensive training device to bring about the rapid improvement of a teacher or group of teachers with similar needs. Directed observation is really the type of observation usually done by students while in training school in connection with practice teaching.

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[1] Lommen, Georgiana, "The Teachers' Institute as an Agency for Training Teachers in Service," *Journal of Rural Education,* Vol. I, pp. 60-8, October. 1921.

Because of the differences in extent and purpose of these two types of demonstration, they have been treated separately. But many of the principles which apply to demonstration teaching would also be applicable to the conduct of the demonstrations planned for directed observation. Due to this overlapping, principles of procedure have not been studied in connection with directed observation.

Frequency of use—The difficulties entailed in releasing teachers for such frequent observations and the time required for planning and directing would naturally cause directed observation to be used less frequently than many other devices. It is used as a supervisory agency by only 44 percent of the city and 35 percent of the rural supervisors. In the majority of the city systems the principal supervises the teachers doing directed observation; while in the rural systems this supervision is usually given by the supervisors in the majority of the cases studied.

Length of each observation—The observers are sometimes sent to observe for an hour a day, a half day, or a full day. Practice in regard to the length of these observations varies as follows: 34 percent of the city supervisors reported for the class hour, 43 percent for the half day, and 23 percent for the entire day; while 52 percent of the rural supervisors reported for the class hour, 25 percent for a half day, and 23 percent for a whole day.

Method of procedure—The plan for carrying on directed observation will of course vary according to the purpose or purposes for which the observing is being done. However, there are certain general practices that are

TABLE 21.—PRINCIPLES OF PROCEDURE IN PLANNING AND CONDUCTING DEMONSTRATION TEACHING

Principles	Number of Supervisors Using			
	For a group of teachers		For individual teachers	
	City[1]	Rural[1]	City[1]	Rural[1]
1. Demonstration lesson or lessons taught in regular classroom	80	84	93	97
2. Demonstration carefully planned to meet the needs of the observer or observers	67	76	51	63
3. Demonstration is followed by a conference	62	73	61	57
4. The demonstrator is present at the conference	60	71	32	44
5. Both observers and demonstrators know standards by which teaching is to be evaluated	56	67	45	39
6. Conference is usually held on same day as demonstration	50	71	43	61
7. Demonstration adheres fairly close to the conditions under which observers work	47	66	53	51
8. Observers check outline or take sufficient notes to recall what took place	37	67	36	38
9. Demonstration is confined to the supervisory objectives set up for the year	42	58	32	27
10. Supervisor is familiar with procedure being used by observers	43	52	59	60
11. A pre-teaching conference is held to set forth methods, devices, and technics to be demonstrated	27	44	29	28
12. A copy of the lesson plan is in the hands of the observers prior to the demonstration	24	36	17	11
13. Observers make a written report of observation	7	15	11	13

[1] Total number reporting 100.

applicable for various purposes. The frequency with which certain of these were reported is given in Table 22, ranked according to the combined use by all city and rural supervisors who cooperated.

It will be recalled that supervision of the directed observation in these city systems is usually done by the principal, while in the rural systems it is done by the supervisor. This doubtless accounts, in part, for the consistent differences in the city and rural supervisory practice. In this connection, it will be recalled that the average city principal has only part time for supervision, which means that it would be difficult for him to give very close supervision of the teachers in their directed observation periods.

TABLE 22.—NATURE OF THE SUPERVISION GIVEN TEACHERS DOING DIRECTED OBSERVATION

Nature of Supervision	Percentage of Those Using Directed Observation	
	In city systems[1]	In rural systems[2]
1. Supervisor is present at observation	34	74
2. There is a discussion of each observation	41	63
3. The teacher observed is present at the discussion	36	66
4. Observers are required to take detailed notes	27	49
5. There is a definite assignment for every day	32	43
6. The assignments begin with the easier and progress to the more difficult phases of the teaching procedure	27	37
7. Training continues until observers develop skill in evaluating teaching performance	20	34
8. The series of observations are made for several consecutive days	20	31

[1] Total number reporting: 44.

[2] Total number reporting: 35.

V. Individual Conferences—A Means of Supervision

What technics do supervisors use to make the individual conference an effective means of teacher improvement?—These are some of the questions which arise in this connection: What types of individual conferences are held? When, where, and under what conditions are they held? How long do they last? Is a record of the conference kept?

Types of individual conferences—Individual conferences are usually held at the school or the supervisor's office. Those held at the school were studied under three classifications, namely:

1. The pre-teaching conference
2. The conference following an observation
3. The follow-up conference.

The present use made of each of these three types is as follows: One-fourth of the city and nearly one-half (48 percent) of the rural supervisors hold a conference with all teachers prior to observing; four-fifths (82 percent) of the city and practically all (95 percent) of the rural supervisors hold a conference with the teacher observed; and over one-half, 58 percent, of the city and 55 percent of the rural supervisors use follow-up conferences, or a series of conferences with a teacher for a specific purpose.

Time, place, and conditions—It is apparently difficult for the supervisors to find a suitable time for these conferences, and the majority of them have utilized various times. The different times which have been taken for conferences, named in order of frequency of use, are: After school, at the end of the recitation hour, at the recess period, some other day, and later during school hours. The number of supervisors utilizing each of these times for conferences are:

1. After school, 66 city and 75 rural[1]
2. At the end of the recitation hour, 55 rural and 46 city
3. At recess periods, 34 city and 59 rural
4. Some other day, 44 city and 24 rural
5. During school hours, but not at end of class period, 23 city and 24 rural.

The time when educational specialists usually recommend that the conference be held—later during school hours—is the time least frequently used. Furthermore, one-half of the supervisors do not take any school time for these conferences, except the brief period at the end of the recitation hour which is necessarily hurried and unprepared for by either the supervisor or the teacher.

The teacher's own classroom is the place most frequently used for the individual conferences. The other places, named in order of frequency of mention, are: the supervisor's office, the principal's office, and a special conference room in the school building.

Over three-fifths of the supervisors, 58 percent of the city and 65 percent of the rural, keep regular office hours for conferences; the others arrange conferences by appointment but there is no regular period at which they may be consulted. This is not in keeping with the practice of most professional groups in public service.

Approximately nine-tenths of the supervisors arrange to be alone with the teacher during their conference. However, several stated that while they were usually alone, the principal was sometimes present.

Half of the supervisors, 49 percent of the city and 52 percent of the rural, make definite written preparations for these conferences. The teachers also prepare for the conferences in about 15 percent of the cases. Almost half of the city and a similar number of the rural supervisors in each group give a copy of this record to the building principal.

Length of conference—The conferences which the city supervisors hold with individual teachers following a classroom visit range from 1 minute to 2 hours, while one-half of them hold conferences that are not less than 14 minutes nor more than 35 minutes in length. Two minutes was the shortest conference reported by the rural supervisors and 2 hours the longest, while one-half do not hold conferences that are less than 16 minutes or more than 45 minutes in length.

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[1] This study included 100 city supervisors and 100 rural supervisors.

These facts raise the question as to whether many of the conferences as now held are long enough to accomplish the purpose of an after-visitation conference and whether part of the time devoted to some of the longer ones would not better be spent in a second conference or some other phase of follow-up. It is readily granted that the length of such conferences will naturally vary according to the needs of each special situation, but, even so, it seems probable that there are an opportune minimum and maximum.

Conference with building principal—Three-fourths of the city and two-thirds of the rural supervisors report that it is their practice to have a conference with the principal before observing in his building. Many supervisors confer with the principal before all visits, while with others the type of visit determines whether or not a conference is sought prior to visiting the classroom. A pre-visitation conference is most frequently held when it is a "visit on call," and least frequently when it is a scheduled visit.

Practically three-fourths of both city and rural supervisors hold conferences with the principal after one or more visits in his building. In this case, the type of visit made does not seem to be an influential factor, as the number holding conferences after each type of visit is practically the same.

VI. Teachers' Meetings—A Means of Supervision[1]

Kinds of teachers' meetings—The various types of teachers' meetings which recent literature discusses may be classified as follows:

1. Pre-school teachers' meetings, or meetings held before the opening of school. The majority of these are largely administrative in the city school systems, and about equally administrative and supervisory in rural systems.
2. General teachers' meetings, or meetings of all the teachers in the system. These are about equally administrative and supervisory in both city and rural school systems.
3. Group teachers' meetings, or meetings attended by only certain groups of the teaching corps, such as a grade, a group of grades, department, etc. These are largely supervisory in character.
4. Principals' meetings, or meetings of those responsible for the supervision of the local schools. These are about equally administrative and supervisory in the majority of city and rural school systems.

Table 23 presents data relative to the above four types of teachers' meetings.

Personnel on the programs of teachers' meetings—Who has a part in making the teachers' meeting an effective means of improving the school system, a kind of clearing house for groups thinking on the problems that center around the physical, social, and mental development of the children in our public elementary schools? Table 24 lists those who have a place on the program of each of the four types of teachers' meetings and the number of systems in which each participates.

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[1] See also Chapter XI, Supervisors' Conferences and Meetings with Teachers.

Topics for teachers' meetings—Topics reported by as many as half of the supervisors, when the reports of both city and rural supervisors were combined, are listed here in order of frequency of use in the different kinds of teachers' meetings:

1. Pre-school meetings—topics relating to the theory of education and school management problems.
2. General teachers' meetings—professional idealism and standards, educational theories, and school management problems.

TABLE 23.—FACTS RELATIVE TO FOUR KINDS OF TEACHERS' MEETINGS IN CITY AND RURAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Teachers' Meetings	Pre-School		General		Group		Principals'	
	City	Rural	City	Rural	City	Rural	City	Rural
Average number held during school year.	1	1	4 or less	2 or less	6 or more	4 or more	(1)	(1)
Percent of schools in which attendance is compulsory.	90	85	84	67	75	71	77	44
When meetings are held: Percent held on a school day.			79	45[2]	(3)	(4)		
Length of meeting in at least one-half of school systems.	½ day or more	2 or more days	1 hr. or more	3 hrs. or more	1 hr. or more	3½ hrs. or more		

[1] Principals' meetings are held at regular intervals in 58 of the 78 city school systems and in 43 of the 68 rural systems which reported the use of this type of meeting. The frequency with which the principals' meetings are held is given in order of use: monthly, bi-monthly, weekly, annually, semi-annually, and every six weeks.

[2] General teachers' meetings are held on Saturday, usually in the morning, in 55 percent of the rural school systems reporting.

[3] Practically always in the afternoon on a school day. When there is no demonstration teaching, they are most frequently held after school—four o'clock being the most popular hour for beginning. When there is to be demonstration teaching, 2:30 is the most common hour for beginning.

[4] Usually, on Friday afternoon if there is to be demonstration teaching, otherwise on Saturday morning.

TABLE 24.—LIST OF THOSE WHO HAVE A PLACE ON THE PROGRAMS OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF TEACHERS' MEETINGS

In City and Rural Systems	Number of Times Each Was Reported for:							
	Pre-school meetings		General meetings		Group meetings		Principals' meetings	
	City	Rural	City	Rural	City	Rural	City	Rural
1. Superintendents of schools	53	61	61	65	23	46	53	49
2. General elementary supervisors	37	61	50	60	69	66	36	54
3. Special supervisors	20	13	29	22	61	21	26	16
4. Principals	14	40	20	46	34	40	49	56
5. Teachers	14	43	32	46	70	70	13	21
6. County or city officials	8	32	10	29	6	14	6	17
7. Parents	6	15	6	12	4	7	3	6
8. Educational specialists	13	52	46	64	34	28	23	18
9. Visiting teachers, administrators, and supervisors	18	39	26	45	23	34	18	24
10. Popular speakers	12	22	34	31	6	9	10	4

3. Group teachers' meetings—topics relating to subject-matter, methods, course of study, individual differences, tests and measurements, recent professional publications, educational theories, teaching materials and equipment.
4. Principals' meetings—school management problems, teaching materials and equipment, tests and measurements.

Teacher participation—Teacher participation in meetings, primarily designed for their professional growth, is probably analogous in importance to pupil participation in classroom activities. The purpose and content of teachers' meetings will naturally influence the kind and amount of teacher participation desirable. Named in order of frequency of mention by city and rural supervisors, the ways in which teachers participate in their meetings are these: Asking questions for information, answering questions from readings and experiences, illustrating and explaining effective devices, asking questions to clarify group thinking, doing demonstration teaching, helping determine problems for study, making individual reports, leading discussions, analyzing and criticizing demonstrations, making committee reports, and being critically minded.

Judgments of Four Professional Groups Concerning the Extent Of Use and Value of Certain Supervisory Devices

The extent to which six direct agencies of supervision are being used by 200 representative general elementary supervisors has already been presented in this chapter. A knowledge of practice, however, does not establish the worth of these various procedures. In fact, in many cases practice does not concur with expert opinion as expressed in literature in the field. For example, many writers object to supervisors making "dropping-in" visits for inspectional purposes, yet over two-thirds of the 200 supervisors reporting stated that they make this type of visit.

Since other evidence of merit was lacking, opinions were secured from those especially conversant with supervision, namely: Fifty specialists in supervision, or those training supervisors directly or indirectly; 100 teachers who are supervised; 100 superintendents of schools who employ supervisors; and 200 general elementary supervisors.

In order to secure the judgments of specialists, superintendents of schools, and teachers, a one-page list of supervisory practices was abstracted from the checking list of the direct agencies of supervision. Rating columns were provided for checking the extent to which each device should be used by general elementary supervisors and also the value placed upon each as a means of improving teachers in service. The four columns provided for rating the items according to *Use* were: "Used often or emphasized," "Used some," "Used very little," and "Not used." Those for rating the items according to *Value* were: "Very valuable," "Some value," "Little value," and "No value."

Table 25 summarizes the returns.

TABLE 25.—PERCENTAGE OF SUPERVISORS, SPECIALISTS, SUPERINTENDENTS, AND TEACHERS RATING CERTAIN SUPERVISORY DEVICES AS "VERY VALUABLE" AND RECOMMENDING THAT THEY BE "USED OFTEN OR EMPHASIZED"

Supervisory Devices	Used Often or Emphasized						Very Valuable					
	Percent						Percent					
	Supervisors	Specialists	Superin-tendents	Teachers	Order	AVERAGE	Supervisors	Specialists	Superin-tendents	Teachers	Order	AVERAGE
	N[1] = 200	N = 50	N = 100	N = 100	Rank	N = 450	N = 200	N = 50	N = 100	N = 100	Rank	N = 450
I. Classroom Visitation:												
1. a. Visits on call	37	62	18	19	19½	34	78	88	47	45	6½	65
b. Dropping-in visits	44	28	30	49	17½	38	37	22	32	52	26	36
c. Scheduled visits	43	40	21	18	24	31	47	42	25	22	29½	34
2. a. Visits to observe teaching	95	82	58	65	1	75	77	82	57	59	4½	69
b. Visits to test children	25	12	11	14	33	16	43	32	26	31	31	33
c. Visits to confer with teacher	12	14	10	13	35	12	22	22	24	34	34	26
3. a. Unannounced visits	65	38	37	51	10½	48	58	24	36	54	22½	43
b. Announced visits	21	54	17	12	26½	26	34	58	27	16	29½	34
4. a. At irregular intervals	67	52	40	49	6	52	51	50	33	44	21	45
b. At regular intervals	26	28	19	20	30	23	37	36	21	23	32	29
5. a. Long visits, one or more periods	83	80	50	42	4	64	79	92	54	53	3	70
b. Short visits, less than one period	9	10	10	22	34	13	8	10	5	20	36	11
II. Directed Teaching:												
1. Of inexperienced teachers	41	64	43	57	8½	50	55	76	50	65	8	62
2. Of problem teachers	29	44	29	32	19½	34	43	66	37	46	17	48
III. Demonstration Teaching:												
1. a. By teacher or supervisor for group	38	60	30	46	13	44	68	74	48	68	6½	65
b. By supervisor for teacher visited	31	20	19	24	29	24	48	50	36	50	19	46
2. a. For inexperienced teachers	54	56	35	55	8½	50	62	84	47	76	4½	69
b. For problem teachers	42	40	18	33	21½	33	54	62	28	41	19	46
c. For all teachers	28	36	16	19	28	25	50	46	31	45	22½	43
3. a. Of new materials and devices	41	52	23	37	17½	38	65	66	47	65	9	61
b. Of proposed methods	40	54	25	36	16	39	59	64	43	58	13	56
c. Of adaptation to individuals	39	56	17	30	21½	33	66	70	45	57	10½	60
4. a. Emergency demonstrations	6	2	1	5	36	4	12	12	18	16	35	15
IV. Directed Observation:												
1. For inexperienced teachers	20	42	21	45	23	32	45	64	40	67	14	54
2. For problem teachers	17	40	10	18	31½	21	35	56	26	38	24	39
V. For Individual Conferences:												
1. a. With teacher observed	88	76	57	59	3	70	83	88	60	82	1	78
b. With principal following visits	58	54	42	34	12	47	52	58	44	42	16	49
c. With principal before visiting	34	36	32	18	25	30	38	40	36	24	27½	35
d. With teacher before observing	18	30	16	18	31½	21	33	48	28	31	27½	35
2. Regular office hours for conference	48	68	37	52		51	51	64	44	53	15	53
VI. Teachers' Meetings:												
1. Group meetings	82	76	55	70	2	71	82	80	58	73	2	73
2. Principals' meetings	45	64	50	54	5	53	53	60	53	55	12	57
3. Committee meetings	43	68	30	50	10½	48	61	70	44	63	10½	60
4. Building meetings	44	44	40	40	14½	42	43	48	45	48	19	46
5. Pre-school meetings	48	40	35	44	14½	42	35	34	39	35	25	38
6. General meetings	42	16	24	21	26½	26	44	20	30	18	33	28

[1] N = total number from whom opinions were secured.

Supervisory Agencies and Devices Rated According to Use

In this study, the ratings of the 200 supervisors represent practice as it is now, while the ratings given by 50 specialists, 100 superintendents, and 100 teachers indicate what in their opinion practice should be. In presenting these ratings, it is recognized that the real use of any of these agencies will depend upon the particular situation in which it is used and the conditioning factors inherent therein. Table 25 presents data on the following points.

Classroom visitation rated according to use—Classroom visitation to observe teaching is the most widely used of the direct supervisory agencies and ranks first in the approval of specialists, superintendents, and teachers.

Expert opinion does not agree with practice or the opinions of teachers and supervisors as to the type of visit that should be used most. Specialists say that visits on call or by request should be used most frequently; and dropping-in visits, or those not previously arranged, least frequently. However, dropping-in visits are the type used most often by a majority of supervisors—they are also ranked highest by teachers and superintendents. Visits on call are second in practice and approval; and scheduled visits, third.

A similar difference exists in regard to whether the announced or unannounced visit should be most used.

Directed teaching rated according to use—Practically two-thirds of the supervisors who use directed teaching as a supervisory device state that it is often used for the continued training of inexperienced teachers, and this practice is approved by a majority of the other three groups.

Although directed teaching is not as widely used as most of the other supervisory agencies studied, all four professional groups offered suggestions for its further use. The most pertinent suggestions were that the supervisor direct the teaching of demonstration teachers planning new types of work, of teachers cooperating in an experiment, of extra good growing teachers, of progressive teachers lacking training, of teachers desiring specific help, of substitute teachers, of teachers changing point of view, of teachers developing new methods, of teachers making change in type of work, of teachers whose methods are out of date, of good teachers who ask for it, and of excellent teachers for the mutual benefit of teacher and supervisor.

Demonstration teaching rated according to use—Table 26 shows that the two types of demonstration teaching used most frequently and judged most effective by supervisors are: (1) For individual teachers—a demonstration by the supervisor with the teacher's own pupils; and (2) for a group of teachers—a capable teacher conducting a demonstration with her own pupils.

Supervisors seem to be giving approximately equal emphasis to demonstration of: teaching methods, use of new materials, and means of adapting instruction to individual differences. Expert opinion would sanction this practice, as would also the ratings of teachers and superintendents.

Whether or not a supervisor should give an emergency demonstration, i. e., take the class from the teacher and conduct it for part or for the remainder of the period, is a mooted question. Practice and opinion seem to agree that it is an emergency means and should be so used. One-third of the teachers recommended that it not be used at all; but a majority of all the groups recommended that it be used, but very little. Several suggested that an emergency demonstration be given only in cases of extreme need when it could be tactfully and skillfully managed.

Directed observation—Of the six agencies studied, directed observation, or directing a teacher to observe a consecutive series of lessons, is the least used. It is not used at all by 56 percent of the city and 65 percent of the rural supervisors. Over four-fifths of the teachers and specialists recommend, however, that it be "used often" or emphasized as a means of continuing the training of inexperienced teachers.

It was suggested that directed observation also be used: for teachers attempting new methods; to correct weaknesses in generally strong teachers; for growing teachers who request it; for untrained teachers; for principals beginning supervision; and for any teacher needing to improve along certain lines.

Individual conferences—The individual conference with teachers and principals is among the most frequently used of the direct supervisory agencies. The kinds of conferences held, named in order of frequency of use, are: with the teacher following a classroom visit; with the principal after one or more visits in his building; with the principal before classroom visits; and with the teacher prior to an observation. This ranking is confirmed by the group ratings of specialists, superintendents, and teachers.

Approximately three-fifths of the supervisors keep regular office hours for conferences with principals and teachers, and practically half of them stated

TABLE 26.—TYPES OF DEMONSTRATION TEACHING USED BY GENERAL ELEMENTARY SUPERVISORS

Types Used	Percentage of Supervisors Using	
	In city systems[1]	In rural systems[2]
I. Demonstrations for individual teachers:		
By the supervisor	74	84
By a capable teacher	64	67
By specially employed demonstration teacher	12	15
By building principal	7	3
II. Demonstration for group of teachers:		
By a capable teacher	69	83
By the supervisor	44	50
By specially employed demonstration teacher	11	22
By building principal	4	3
By representative of publishing house	4	2
By instructor of extension course	1	2

[1] Total number reporting: 93.

[2] Total number reporting: 97.

that these conferences were "used often or emphasized." More than two-thirds of the specialists and one-half of the teachers recommend that supervisory programs emphasize the regular conference hours as a means of teacher improvement. These definite periods for consultation do not preclude conferences at other times by appointment, but merely provide a definite, convenient time for such appointments and the more informal interviews. One of the specialists suggested that there be a special office hour for the new teachers.

Teachers' meetings—Group meetings are emphasized or "used often" by almost twice as many supervisors as any other kind of teachers' meetings. Of all the supervisory devices included in this study, group meetings were ranked second in value.

Principals' meetings and committee meetings are recommended for more frequent use than they are receiving.

While general teachers' meetings are used less frequently than any of the other five types of teachers' meetings, the ratings of the judges would indicate that they should be used even less frequently than they are.

Supervisory Agencies and Devices Rated According to Value

The summary of returns from 50 specialists, 100 superintendents, and 100 teachers shows that as a whole these different groups of judges tend to agree rather than disagree; differences of opinion within groups are much greater than those between groups. The average ratings of specialists, both as to value and extent of use recommended, are somewhat higher than those of any other group; those of the supervisors, second; the teachers, third; and the superintendents of schools, lowest. The average ratings of city supervisors are higher than those of rural supervisors. while there are no marked differences between the ratings of the supervisors with different amounts of training, superior teachers tend to rate the supervisory devices higher than do teachers of less ability.

The chief points gained from a summary of all ratings on the value of classroom visitation, directed teaching, demonstration teaching, directed observation, individual conferences, and teachers' meetings are these:

1. Classroom visitation:

a. Visitation upon request is the most valuable type of supervisory visit, but approximately equal emphasis should be given to all three types; namely, visits on call, scheduled visits, and informal dropping-in visits.

b. Visits for the purpose of observation are most valuable, and should be used oftener than visits for other purposes.

c. The unannounced visits are more valuable and should be used oftener than the announced visits. The specialists, however, consider the announced visits more valuable and recommend that they be used oftener than the unannounced visits.

d. Visits at irregular intervals are more valuable and should be used oftener than visits at regular intervals.

e. Visits for a whole class period or longer are more valuable and should be used oftener than those less than a class period in length.

2. Directed teaching:

a. Directed teaching is very valuable and should be emphasized as a means of improving inexperienced teachers. It should also be used some for other teachers needing or desiring to improve along certain lines.

3. Demonstration teaching:

a. Demonstration teaching is valuable and should be used for the improvement of all teachers; but it is more valuable and should be used oftener for inexperienced teachers, and, next most often, for those with specific weaknesses and teaching difficulties.

b. Demonstrations planned for a group of teachers are a more valuable means of teacher improvement, and should receive greater emphasis than individual demonstrations given by the supervisor for the teachers visited.

c. Approximately equal emphasis should be given and equal value attached to demonstrations: of teaching methods, of uses of new materials and devices, and of means of adapting instruction to individual differences.

d. Emergency demonstration has little value and should be used very little, if at all.

4. Directed observation:

a. Although directed observation is used less than any of the other direct agencies of supervision, it is considered a very valuable means of improving inexperienced teachers by approximately two-thirds of the specialists and teachers.

5. Individual conferences:

a. A conference with the teacher observed is one of the most valuable and should be one of the most frequently used means of teacher improvement. The other types of school conferences, named in order of value and the frequency with which they should be used, are: conference with the principal after one or more classroom visits; with the principal before classroom visits; and with the teacher prior to observing.

b. Regular office hours for conferences are considered very valuable and are recommended for emphasis by over half of the judges.

6. Teachers' meetings:

a. Group meetings or meetings of special professional groups are considered the most valuable type of teachers' meetings, and are rated as the second most valuable supervisory means of teacher improvement. The other kinds of teachers' meetings, named in order of value and extent of use, are: principals' meetings, committee meetings, building meetings, pre-school meetings, and general meetings of all the teachers of the entire system.

CHAPTER V

THE PLANNING OF SUPERVISORY PROGRAMS

THE FOREGOING chapters have set forth in general terms what supervision is and why we must have it. The major functions have been listed. Various schemes for organizing the personnel and allocating duties have been outlined. It is now necessary to consider briefly the important question of just how the actual work of supervision is planned and carried out.

Planned programs relatively new—Planned programs of supervision are relatively new. As recently as 1925 a rather comprehensive survey[1] indicated a serious lack of such procedure throughout the county. Supervision for generations has been looked upon as inspection, chiefly done through visitation. Though much of the visitation was scheduled and done effectively, a good deal of it was random and haphazard. In contrast to this, modern supervision goes far beyond mere visitation and includes a wide range of supervisory activities, which in turn demand an organized and coherent program of far-reaching import. In too many situations there is no definite, well-organized plan of supervision setting forth the objectives for the year's work and outlining the program by which these objectives are to be attained. Often when there is some sort of plan, vague in detail, there is found no definite, constructive work toward its fulfillment. In other cases, supervisors are submerged in routine details and can make no plans. In still others, they are mere roundsmen traveling from building to building. In many cases, the work, while actually valuable in some degree and accomplishing some good, is haphazard and does not follow a carefully constructed plan. In many places, of course, these criticisms do not apply, since well-organized plans developed by properly trained people are in evidence.

Reasons for poor practice—There seem to be certain definite reasons for the backwardness of practice in the matter of supervision, most of which can be overcome. The survey referred to above covers 259 cities of all sizes in all parts of the country. Only a very few cities sent in plans. Most of the larger cities indicated that their work was well-planned but the extent of it was such that it could not be easily presented in a written statement. On the other hand, a very large number of superintendents submitted no plan, and a few stated quite frankly that they did not know what was meant. This does not mean that nothing was being done in these latter situations, because letters and printed annual reports submitted showed that a good deal of valuable work was in progress. This work consisted, however, mostly of limited classroom supervision; namely, visitation, conference, demonstration teaching, teachers' meetings, and the like. Very rarely indeed was this work organized around any central problem growing out of the needs of the schools. The following reasons doubtless account for this difficulty:

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[1] Barr, A. S.; and Burton, W. H., *The Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 90-91. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1926.

1. The concept of supervision as the improvement of teaching is still new. The inspectorial idea still persists in many places. In many others, where practice is better than inspection, it is limited rather narrowly to classroom supervision.
2. The great mass of supervisors are inadequately trained for the work.
3. The pressing nature of administrative and clerical duties prevents proper attention to comprehensive supervisory planning.
4. Lack of clear definition of function and allocation of duty for superintendent, principal, and supervisor is an obstacle to the development of supervisory programs.
5. The fact that the teaching body is far from homogeneous makes the work difficult to plan.

In the five years since this survey was made, great progress has been made in eliminating the above reasons, chiefly the first and fourth.

Reasons for planning—Although practice falls badly behind theory, there is a striking unanimity of opinion in regard to the theory of planning. All human activities of any importance or complexity must be planned. In the school world, experience has demonstrated again and again that organizing and prescribing a program for the guidance of school interests are essential to the success of any situation. This is particularly true in supervision. A supervisor without a program has no point of departure and no destination. Furthermore, the value of supervision cannot be determined well, if at all, unless a plan is set up in advance sufficiently definite so that the results of its operation can be measured. The supervisor must have clearly in mind the objectives which he wishes to attain, he must know the methods by which these outcomes may be accomplished, he must know some of the obstacles which will likely appear, he must learn how to adjust the means and facilities available to the achievement of the desired end. A good deal of ineffectual supervision exists because supervisors have failed to make definite plans.

The following definite reasons may be advanced in advocating planned programs of supervision.

1. A planned program insures that the supervisor has thought his situation through, analyzed it, and selected for attention the weak spots or new needs.
2. A planned program insures a definite organization of professional activity directed toward the achievement of certain definite objectives. It tends thus to displace mere routine visitation and inspection, vague and general supervision.
3. A planned program is a source of professional stimulation to all concerned.
4. Definite programs constructed by all supervisors make for easier coordination of the work of all.
5. A planned program gives the administrative officers, the school board, or lay observers a definite idea of the work being attempted. It gives them also a basis for judging and evaluating supervision.
6. A planned program is an excellent test of the ability of the supervisory staff.

Characteristics of a good plan—The nature of supervisory plans and the coordination between the plans of various supervisors will, of course, differ with the size of the system and the organization of staff in effect in the given system. Whether the plan be that of a superintendent, a general supervisor, a special supervisor, or a building principal, it should possess the three following elements:

1. A set of clearly stated, definite objectives.
2. A clear-cut outline of the means, devices, and procedures to be utilized in the attainment of these ends.
3. A clear-cut outline of the criteria, checks, or tests to be applied to the results of supervision, in order to determine the success or failure of the program.

The derivation of the objectives—In order to organize an effective supervisory program, the supervisor must first obtain as complete and accurate a picture of the situation as can be obtained. The objectives should be selected in terms of the actual situation. They may be determined finally by the superintendent, by the supervisors, by the supervisory council, by the building principal, or by any of these in cooperation with the teachers. In discovering objectives, a careful study of the situation is necessary. Exhaustive surveys of various types should be made. These analyses may be carried on in any of several ways. For surveying the classroom practices of a system, Brueckner presents the following summary:[1]

A. Technics Stressing the Pupil:

1. Survey by means of standard tests.
2. An analysis of the activities engaged in by pupils. This may be done by recording the number of times items are observed, or by describing conditions, or by making comparisons.
3. Consideration of psychological factors, such as attention, errors made, etc.
4. Collecting opinions of pupils, particularly in regard to curriculum material.
5. Studying the attitudes of pupils by observing their behavior in significant situations.
6. Through the evaluation of various of the preceding analyses.

B. Technics Stressing the Teacher:

1. Analysis of the activities of the teacher.
2. A study of the difficulties met by teachers.
3. An analysis of errors and procedures.
4. A summary of judgments on the skill of teachers.
5. Evaluation of levels of teaching skill judged in terms of any of several criteria.
6. Trade tests.

C. Technics Stressing Various Elements in Lessons:

1. Studying the time allotted to subjects or phases of learning.
2. Analyzing nature and order of activities within the lesson.
3. Studying the objectives of lessons.

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[1] Brueckner, L. J., "Developments in Techniques for Securing Factual Data Concerning Classroom Teaching," Chapter II, *Scientific Method in Supervision*, Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

4. Determining and evaluating levels of teaching.
5. Through the use of check lists and observation blanks.
6. Through the study and description of type lessons.
7. Gathering and analyzing materials used in lessons.
8. Through the analysis of instructional conditions surrounding the teaching situation.

In addition to these methods of making instructional surveys, the following methods are also to be suggested as it is found necessary to survey surrounding conditions:

1. Analysis of the records of the system.
2. A study of the records of the teaching staff, their training, experience, personal records, etc.
3. A survey of the social and economic background of the pupils.
4. A survey of new movements in education to determine whether any of them should be introduced into the local situation.

The use of one or several of the above methods, or of others which may be devised and suggested, will uncover the needs of the situation and these will constitute the objectives. Space cannot be given here to elaborating the details involved in the actual using of the foregoing survey methods. Furthermore, this matter is covered in copious detail in the *Second Yearbook* of the National Conference of Supervisors referred to previously. It is material that should be in the hands of all people with supervisory responsibilities.

From the list of possible objectives, a few of the most important and practicable should be selected for attention. No rule can be laid down as to the number to be included in any one program. The specific situation must determine this. Cubberley[1] suggests that two are sufficient. Other authorities suggest three or four, and in one or two situations seven or eight have been successfully attacked. In the main, however, the number should be kept small. In this way, effort is not extended over too large a field, and provision is made for flexibility in the program.

Typical objectives are illustrated in the following lists. For instance, the Oklahoma City plan a few years ago included these:

1. Establishment of a junior first grade to meet the needs of immature children who are not developed sufficiently to profit by traditional first-grade work.
2. Diagnosis of special needs in this group, and remedial instruction.
3. Preparation of materials of instruction for certain courses and grades.
4. Classification of the set-up and procedure of project work.
5. Encouraging teachers' contributions to the general improvement of instruction.

Another set suggested by Miss McLean of Saginaw, Mich., includes:

1. A more democratic plan for teachers' meetings, securing greater teacher-co-operation.

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[1] "Only one or two of these major problems or objectives should be undertaken in any one year."—Cubberley, Ellwood P., *The Principal and His School*, p. 52. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923.

2. Completion of health and kindergarten courses of study.
3. More helpful program for teachers' conferences (individual conferences).
4. Extension of use of demonstration lessons.
5. More unified viewpoint in supervision from our "supervisory council" consisting of supervisor and supervising principals.
6. Reorganization of work in first grade.
7. Better methods of studying results of tests to improve instruction.

Still another set is suggested by Miss McIntyre of Berwyn, Ill., in her plan for 1928-29:

1. To improve the teaching of geography in the fourth and fifth grades.
2. To introduce manuscript writing into the first grade and to improve cursive writing in the other grades. To improve the teaching of the fundamentals of arithmetic.

Miss Whittaker of Springfield, Ill., in a current plan lists these:

1. To assist in constructing the course of study in health education.
2. To give building principals assistance and perhaps instruction to enable them to take over a part of primary supervision.
3. To organize part-time kindergartens in schools where there are adequate facilities, i. e., trained teachers, space, and some equipment.
4. To awaken the public to the value of kindergarten training.
5. To educate teachers to the conception of supervision largely upon call.

The objectives developed on the basis of a comprehensive survey by Miss Kathryn Steinmetz for use this year in the Barton School, Chicago, were as follows:

I. Improvement in reading by emphasizing the functions of the reading period, the recreational reading period, and reading in the content subjects:
    A. Training and improvement in those fundamental habits, attitudes, and skills of reading so that the pupils will read the thought of the printed page without focal consciousness of words (acquisition of the primary reading adaptation).
    B. Stimulation in recreational reading to lead:
        1. To cultivation of habits of real enjoyment and of better tastes
        2. To awakening of keen interest which will lead to continuity in reading
        3. To reconstruction of experience.
    C. Development of reading as the fundamental study tool for the acquisition of new attitudes of understanding in the content subjects, in order:
        1. To extend and enrich experience, and
        2. To train in intensive reading for specific purposes peculiar to those subjects.
II. Trying out the usableness of the tentative course of study in health.
III. Development of unit organization of 5B history and the use of the science-type procedure with the units.
IV. Development of seat work for the first grade.

The foregoing lists illustrate the wide range of possible objectives but they by no means exhaust the possibilities.

The means of achieving the objectives—With the objectives settled, the next task is the organization of the step-by-step progress toward their attainment. The methods used are, of course, more or less clearly indicated by the objectives themselves. The following list indicates some of the general means available.

1. A series of organized and controlled teachers' meetings
2. Organized classroom visiting, either on schedule or on call
3. Demonstration teaching, directed observation, and directed teaching
4. Directing teachers to reading circle work, to extension classes, and to summer school work
5. Training teachers to use and interpret tests
6. Planning remedial teaching on the basis of diagnostic testing
7. Experimental work and research
8. Organizing committees for research, curriculum revision, etc.
9. Supplying materials of instruction in sufficient quantities
10. Using school papers and local newspapers in a propaganda campaign.

Special caution should be voiced here, however, that it is not sufficient to say that a given objective is to be achieved by means of meetings, visitation, demonstrations, study by the teachers, etc. A good supervisory plan must set forth specifically what will be studied, the specific nature of the demonstrations to be given, a detailed outline of certain conferences or meetings definitely organized to meet specific ends. For instance, it will be recalled that the first objective stated by Miss Steinmetz above was:

I. Improvement in reading by emphasizing the functions of the reading period, the recreational reading period, and reading in the content subjects:
    A. Training and improvement in those fundamental habits, attitudes, and skills of reading so that the pupils will read the thought of the printed page without focal consciousness of words (acquisition of the primary reading adaptation).
    B. Stimulation in recreational reading to lead:
        1. To cultivation of habits of real enjoyment and of better tastes
        2. To awakening of keen interest which will lead to continuity in reading, and
        3. To reconstruction of experience.

For achieving this objective, she sets forth the following outline of means. Space prohibits exhibiting all the details of her procedure. The list, however, makes clear the nature of her attack:

1. Group meetings of the teachers will serve to explain the objectives and to discuss problems as they arise.
2. By reading, study, and group reports, the teachers will be brought to a realization of the divisions of the reading situation and the functions of each division.
3. Mimeographed lists of scientific investigations and references on reading with bibliographic notes will be supplied by the principal.
4. The principal will present the normal growth curves for the fundamental habits in oral and silent reading in order that the teachers may determine the degree of maturity to be secured in their grades.
5. Teachers will administer the Monroe Silent Reading Tests in order to secure indices of rate and power of comprehension.

6. The teacher will watch the eye movements of problem cases in order to detect immaturity in the habits of recognition.
7. Pupils will be taught the use of various aids for accuracy of recognition without sole dependence upon phonics.
8. The pupils will read an abundance of simple material for exercise to increase the span of recognition.
9. Flash card exercises will be used to speed up rate of recognition.
10. Teachers will detect lip readers and decrease vocalization.
11. Teachers will devise cards with a series of directions of increasing difficulty to test the pupils' attitude toward reading.
12. Pupils will use the "Perfo" silent reading exercises in the primary grades.
13. As four sets of the McCall Silent Reading Lessons have been mounted separately and keys provided, the lessons will be used for daily practice and remedial teaching.
14. The principal will provide an abundance of interesting reading material.

The following six procedures are suggested for the fostering of cooperation by principals with supervisors:

1. Attendance by principals at meetings called by the various supervisors for special groups of teachers.
2. Seeking by the principal of an individual conference with the supervisor, perhaps once a month, to discuss objectives, problems, progress achieved, and next steps.
3. Willingly giving time for brief conferences with all supervisors who visit the building.
4. Visiting classrooms with the supervisors upon invitation by the latter. This activity would involve cooperative planning for defining the objectives of the visit, for establishing the technic of visitation, for observation and cooperative planning of the follow-up work. .
5. Asking supervisors for and conscientiously studying outlines which supervisors prepare for teachers' use.
6. Encouraging teachers to cooperate whole-heartedly with supervisors by setting a personal example by maintenance of morale and by giving assistance when needed.

In presenting the objective, "Securing administrative units sufficiently large to make possible larger high schools and so to secure more effective supervision," M. R. Owens, high-school supervisor for Arkansas, proposes to use the following means, among others:

1. Carefully prepared and legitimate publicity articles in state and county newspapers.
2. Special bulletins carefully prepared and distributed to educational leaders and laymen throughout the state.
3. School rallies in different counties.
4. Inducing county superintendents to conduct tours of leading citizens in their counties through neighboring counties in Louisiana and Tennessee which have made outstanding successes of the county-unit system in developing modern high schools in rural and village communities.

Checks and criteria for evaluating supervisory outcomes—One of the earmarks of a competent worker in any field is ability to devise tests with which to measure one's own success. Measures or criteria of success must be devised for each supervisory objective set up.

In the case of a common objective, improvement in some selected subject, standard tests offer a first check. In case the objective involves detection of individual difficulties in learning, the results should show up in the grade progress tables, in statistics of failure and promotion. In still other cases, the activities of pupils can be counted before and after a supervisory campaign, i. e., books read, questions asked, voluntary projects carried out. The same may be done for the teachers, i. e., professional books and articles read, meetings attended, courses taken, suggestions made. If the objective is the preparation and use of improved instructional materials, the check is obvious and conclusive; the material is in evidence or it is not. The mere presence of material or of a course of study is not really final, however. The usefulness and validity of this material should be further checked during or after use, either by teacher opinion or by some objective analysis.

Again, the check will be obvious if the objective was promotion of teacher participation or suggestion in any undertaking.

The foregoing brief statement illustrates the point. Suffice it to say that the objective must not be left hanging in the air even though pursued by approved supervisory activities. The actual result of these activities must be determined as precisely and objectively as possible.

Flexibility—Some may object that such plans make supervision rigid and formal. The utmost flexibility, of course, must be retained in order that adjustment may be made to new things which may arise suddenly and unexpectedly.

Among the chief means of achieving flexibility are these: (1) The number of objectives should be kept small and plans for meeting them as simple and direct as possible. This makes for flexibility, in that fewer connections must be broken down if changes become imperative. (2) Teacher cooperation in the formulation of plans also assures flexibility. When teachers have participated in making a plan, they not only feel that it is theirs, but they understand it thoroughly in its various connections and ramifications. Having participated in making the plan, they are willing and ready to make necessary adjustments in bettering it or adapting it.

Descriptions of actual plans—Space prohibits the exhibition here of complete plans. Therefore, the following descriptions are submitted.

A program for state high-school supervision in Arkansas—M. R. Owens, state high-school inspector in Arkansas, has worked out, in his office, an admirable plan for indirect supervision, based upon a careful study of actual conditions. He first analyzed briefly the administrative organization of the Arkansas state school system, outlining the relationship established by law between the state board, state superintendent of schools, governor, and other officials in the state and county systems. The duties and relationships of county superintendents and county boards to each other and to the state system were outlined, since these discussions of administrative set-up were essential to an understanding of supervisory possibilities. This procedure illustrates very well the discussion already presented in Chapter IV of this Yearbook.

Then the personnel and organization of the staff actually available for high-school supervision were considered, as were also the area of the state, the number of high schools involved, and the difficulties of transportation.

According to Mr. Owens, supervision by state officers must be indirect. This also was the consensus of opinion of the national meeting of high-school supervisors at Boston in 1928.

After making these general preliminary analyses, Mr. Owens made a detailed study of the high-school situation in Arkansas. The number of high schools and the number of pupils, the various sizes of high schools, the curriculums offered, the range of subjects, were all taken into account. The number and training levels of teachers and their assignments by subjects were scrutinized. Then the procedures in certificating these teachers were considered. On the basis of this careful and minute scrutiny of the situation, five objectives were set up, each of which permits of vigorous treatment despite the indirect means necessitated by the situation.

1. Administrative units sufficiently large to make possible larger high schools.
2. Restricted subject offerings in smaller high schools, a more uniform curriculum.
3. A teacher-training program that will prepare teachers to teach the subjects which they are required to teach in the high schools.
4. Certification of high-school teachers according to the subjects they are prepared to teach.
5. The general improvement of teachers in service.

For each of these objectives, detailed and specific means were set forth by use of which the campaign for improvement could be carried on. The general nature of these details has already been illustrated earlier in this chapter.

The supervisory program for the Barton (Chicago) Elementary School—This school was a new elementary unit opened for the first time in September, 1928. In planning her supervisory program, the principal, Miss Steinmetz, made an exhaustive survey of a number of immediate and remote factors influencing the situation. In the first place, she secured accurate information on the racial stock and economic level represented by the neighborhood. She prepared a table showing the schools from which her new school population was transferred, and then attempted to anticipate what attitudes and backgrounds these children might bring with them. A complete analysis was made of the training, experience, and personal records of teachers transferred to the new building.

Very obviously, in such a situation the principal was unable to make an instructional survey of any sort. She therefore set up two objectives for immediate attack, and while working upon them carried on an instructional survey which will be commented upon below. The two preliminary objectives were:

1. Unification of the community, pupils, and teachers into a unit with common objectives.
2. Emphasis upon improvement in those school subjects which were comparatively easy to teach, and in which the proper technic is not a matter of judgment.

In pursuing the first objective, the teachers were assigned to various committees to prepare a program for the dedication exercises for the new building. Such exercises were required, and this offered an admirable opportunity to give each teacher a chance to show her worth and to work on a common project. A parent-teacher association of 250 members was quickly formed and given some actual, interesting tasks to perform. Later, of course, they would take the initiative in many matters.

A vigorous routine program of improvement in handwriting, spelling, and primary number was carried on.

As soon as school started, an extensive instructional survey was made, involving not only the testing of all pupils in all subjects, but also the preparation immediately of age-grade statistics which revealed the facts regarding retardation.

The teachers not only participated in these surveys, but worked as a group in interpreting the results. This had two effects: first, of informing them about the actual situation; and second, of further unifying them as a group. Furthermore, the teachers themselves were asked to suggest very frankly the objectives which they felt needed attention. On the basis of these analyses and teachers' suggestions, the four objectives already listed in this chapter were set up.[1]

The attack on these objectives was as carefully planned as the derivation of the objectives themselves. Meetings and study groups were organized to set up definitely specific problems. The proper professional literature was discovered and studied. Demonstration lessons, followed by discussion, were utilized. Bulletins were issued, materials were secured and utilized, and much individual conference work was carried out.

A supervisory plan with limited objectives used at Donora, Pa. (1927-28)—In this situation, Supt. Gilland set up as his only objective the organization on the unit basis of the subject-matter in arithmetic, history, and English in Grades 4, 5, and 6.

He justified the plan with the following points derived from the local situation: In the first place, there is no local course of study. The state course of study is not detailed. There is a definite lack of uniformity in the practice of teachers both as to subject-matter and method. The possibility of professional growth of teachers through experiment with this organization of subject-matter was stressed as a vitally important consideration even if the plan should not in the end accomplish all that was hoped.

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[1] See page 90.

After analyzing the type of community, the staff, and materials available, Mr. Gilland set forth succinctly a method by means of which this work was to be accomplished.

The whole theory of unit planning was explained to the teachers, and they were directed to study it. This was in May, so that many could take summer school work in preparation. The teachers were then asked to submit their preferences, and subject committee assignments were made. Three committees were then formed for each grade, one for each subject. These committees were to set up the objectives, determine the number of units, attempt to determine the time allotment, and make teaching outlines. The latter were to be complete, including general method, devices, and materials. Tests for the units were to be constructed.

A room was set aside for this committee work, and here were collected all of the necessary texts, references, professional books, and course-of-study materials.

The chairmen of the grade committees in each subject constituted a general committee for that subject. Their duties were to care for sequence and to eliminate duplication. The superintendent was a member of all committees. The material was then introduced to the teachers, and they were assisted in attempting to teach under the new organization.

The following outcomes were anticipated:

1. More definite consideration of individual pupils.
2. Definite advantages for very bright and very dull pupils.
3. Tangible and definite outcomes could be stated.
4. A more definite check-up would be possible.
5. Greater uniformity in the use of materials and activities in various grades and subjects.
6. A more worthwhile use of textbooks.
7. Greater and more intelligent use of supplementary texts, reference books, and other supplementary materials.
8. A definite improvement in professional understanding and skills of the teaching staff.

The coordination of plans within a system—The foregoing illustrations are from plans to be utilized in units under the control of one individual. In cities of any size, there will be several supervisors making plans, and also the building principal is expected to plan his part of the supervisory activity.

The problem here is one of coordination. Plans are made as above and coordinated through some central agency. Under line and staff organization in small cities, the coordination will be done through the superintendent's office or through that of the assistant superintendent in charge of supervision. In larger cities with line and staff organization, the coordination will be done through some sort of central council or committee set up for the purpose of bringing line and staff together. This central council may include all supervisors and principals in small towns, but in larger cities it should probably be made up of delegates representing each group. Teachers should probably be represented also on supervisory councils in most places.

In the coordinate system, the central adjustment of the various plans is done by the council made up of the primary administrative staff. This mechanism may be supplemented, of course, by interlocking committees on lower levels.

The task is to construct a "master plan" for the system, based on its needs as a whole, by divisions, or by localities. The contribution of staff departments and line units can thus be provided for as part of a coordinated whole. Duties can be definitely allocated. What is to be done and by whom it is to be done can be clearly stated. Each department and line division is thus enabled to contribute, to question, or to object if necessary. When the final plan has been constructed and approved by whatever central agency exists, it then represents a plan agreed upon by all concerned. This central planning and predetermination of what is to be done, O. K.'d by all concerned, largely remove the possibility of clash or squabbling later. Everyone has had an opportunity to contribute or to object while the plan is under construction. Upon acceptance by everyone, the objector or trouble-maker quite definitely has no case in court later on. This does not mean, of course, that valid objections may not be raised later in a professional manner and through regular administrative channels in case flaws or difficulties develop.

Summary—In summarizing, it may be repeated that the organization of supervisory plans or programs of professional activity is absolutely essential. These plans will consist of definitely stated objectives, clearly outlined means for achieving these objectives, a statement of measures by means of which these outcomes are to be evaluated. The objectives will be determined by the analysis and survey of the actual situation involved. They cannot be set up *a priori* or by swivel-chair thinking.

CHAPTER VI

EVIDENCES OF THE VALUE OF SUPERVISION

SUPERVISION, *the result of a demand for the application of the scientific method to the improvement of instruction*—With the expansion of the schools, the growth of the curriculum, the development of new types of schools, and the attempts to apply the results of the scientific study of education, numerous instructional problems arose which necessitated the appointment of persons who could deal with them in a constructive way.

Today, the schools present much evidence to show the effectiveness with which supervisory officers have dealt with these instructional problems. Courses of study have been vastly improved. Instructional materials are being developed by scientific methods. Technics are being devised to provide for the differences in pupils revealed by educational science. The methods of science are applied to the study of many problems related to teaching procedures. Carefully directed supervisory programs have resulted in desirable changes in teaching practices as the result of the training activities of supervisors.

Within recent years, supervisors have begun to apply the scientific method to the study of their own work. An increasing number of investigations are being made to secure definite evidence as to the value of various supervisory procedures and as to the value of supervision as a whole. This is being done both to aid the supervisor to do his work more effectively and to secure information which can be presented as evidence to justify the introduction of organized, personal supervision in communities in which it is still lacking.

Various influences which tend to produce desirable changes in teaching, in addition to the supervisor himself, exist in every community. Among the direct means used by the supervisor are conferences with teachers, classroom visitation, rating, curriculum building, demonstration lessons, training courses, and institutes. Indirect influences which are independent of the supervisor, but which undoubtedly have a considerable effect on teaching, even in communities in which there is no personal supervision, are due to such factors as the quality of the textbooks used, the manuals for teachers, the contents of state courses of study, professional magazines and books that are read, travel, summer school study, and industrial exhibits.

Supervision evaluated from four different standpoints—The methods that have been used to secure data as to the effectiveness of supervision range from carefully controlled experiments involving precise measurement of outcomes to the listing of observable outcomes which are at present not measurable. Technics have also been suggested which have not yet been applied to the evaluation of supervision, but which in the future will undoubtedly add much evidence of the value of supervision.

In this section, the significant studies that have been made will be considered under the following heads:

Evaluation of Supervision in Terms of:

I. Measured Changes in the Achievement of Pupils
II. Measured Changes in Teaching Procedures
III. Observed Changes in the Teaching or Learning Situation and in the Community
IV. Judgments of Individuals.

It should be pointed out that it is very difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of supervision, since it is only one factor in a large number that may operate to produce the changes that are apparent in any situation. Furthermore, the significance of a single factor in isolation may be much less than when it operates together with a number of others each of which contributes vitally in a particular complex situation.

The difficulty of evaluating supervision is further complicated by the inadequacy of the methods that are available for measuring the results of supervision. Growth of pupils in achievement can be fairly well measured by means of standard tests that are available. However, it is recognized that tests measure only a small part of the total outcome of teaching. Only a beginning has been made in the development of technics to measure the changes in teaching procedures that may be due to supervision. Attempts are being made to analyze quantitatively the observed changes that take place in the educational situation; the extent to which the observed changes are due to supervision is difficult to determine. Because of the lack of experimental evidence as to the value of various supervisory practices, the available evidence as to the judgments of individuals regarding the value of numerous supervisory procedures has been assembled. The relative value of supervisory practices should obviously be determined by careful experimentation.

In considering the results of the studies of the value of supervision that are reported on the following pages, the conclusions of the various investigators should be interpreted in the light of the difficulties and limitations that have been mentioned. The studies that are described will undoubtedly suggest others that may be conducted under more carefully controlled conditions. Improved methods of measuring and recording changes in teaching that are observed in the classroom must be devised. Despite these limitations, it is felt that the investigations that have blazed the trail represent a significant contribution to the scientific study of supervision.

I. Evaluation of Supervision in Terms of Measured Changes in the Achievement of Pupils

The most commonly used technic by which experimenters have attempted to evaluate the effectiveness of supervision has been the measurement of pupil growth by standard achievement tests. The limitations of these tests have usually been recognized in the interpretations of the results, since it is admitted that these tests measure only a small part of the total possible outcomes in a learning situation. Attempts that have been made to measure certain other desirable outcomes of a learning situation, such as attitudes and appreciations, not measured by these tests, are described later in this report.

A. An Evaluation of Rural Supervision in Michigan

In Oakland and Macomb Counties, Michigan, an experiment[1] was conducted to determine the effectiveness of rural supervision. In Oakland County the work of the teachers was carefully supervised by a county superintendent and three supervisors of instruction. A carefully planned program was carried out during the year, consisting of institutes, district meetings, supervisory visits, and demonstrative lessons. Intensive work was done on the teaching of reading, arithmetic, language, and spelling. All teachers were informed in detail at the beginning of the year concerning the whole of the supervisory program. In Macomb County there were no supervisors of instruction. "The work of the supervisors is therefore assumed to be the significant factor in causing any differences which appear in the results." The schools in the two counties were paired in such a way that the two groups were as nearly equivalent as possible, as far as pupils and teachers were concerned. In each group there were thirty-five one-teacher schools and eight rooms of two-teacher schools.

In order to measure the growth of the pupils, the following tests were given:

Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale, Form 1
Woody Arithmetic Scale, Series B, Form 1
Monroe Reasoning Test in Arithmetic, Form 1
Wilson Language Error Test, Story A
Morrison-McCall Spelling Test, List 1.

The National Intelligence Test, Scale A, Form 2, was also given.

The members of the faculty of the department of rural education and the class in rural leadership of the Michigan State Normal College administered the tests in the fall between September 8, 1924, and September 24, 1924. In the spring between April 27, 1925, and May 14, 1925, they gave equivalent forms of all tests except the intelligence test.

In order to get a measure of the growth, the following procedure was worked out:

First, the average scores on the fall tests for each county were computed; second, the average scores made by the same pupils on the spring tests were computed. The difference between the fall and the spring averages was taken as the measure of progress made during the year. From the testing of thousands of pupils in all parts of the country the normal amount of gain made by average pupils in one year of school work is known. The actual gains made by the pupils in the experiment were expressed in percentages of the normal gain for a school year. They are summarized for all grades in each subject in Table 27.

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[1] Hoppes, W. C., et al., "The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County," *Michigan Education Association Bulletin No. 7.* Lansing, Mich., June, 1926. 40 pp.

TABLE 27.—SUMMARY OF PERCENTAGES OF A NORMAL YEAR* OF SCHOOL WORK ACHIEVED IN NINE SCHOOL SUBJECTS IN SUPERVISED AND IN UNSUPERVISED SCHOOLS

Subject	Supervised Oakland	Unsupervised Macomb
Reading	130	46
Addition	188	135
Subtraction	190	151
Multiplication	172	143
Division	154	100
Arithmetic Reasoning	154	106
Correct Answers	185	113
Language	180	24
Spelling	180	52
Average†	170.8	97.0

* Determined from published standards for the tests used. Although these standards were not derived from scores of rural pupils, they were adopted as the most significant basis for comparison in that the achievement of any group of pupils may hereafter be compared with either the supervised or unsupervised group without the necessity of repeating the entire experiment.

† These averages were computed in the following manner:

a. The percentages of gain in each subject were multiplied by the number of pupils from whose scores the gains were computed.

b. The sum of the products for each subject was divided by the total number of matched pupils tested in that subject. This quotient for each subject is given above.

c. The sum of the products for all subjects was divided by the total number of pupils tested in all subjects. This quotient is the average percentage of a normal year of achievement in all subjects.

In the report, the data in the table are commented on as follows:

The average of all these percentages was for the supervised schools 170.8; for the unsupervised schools, 97. This means that the pupils in the supervised schools of Oakland County in the nine phases of the subjects tested accomplished 170.8 percent of a normal year of school work; while the pupils in the unsupervised schools of Macomb County accomplished 97 percent of a normal year of school work. The difference between these is 73.8, or 76 percent; that is, the achievement of the supervised pupils was 76 percent greater than the achievement of the unsupervised pupils.

The period between the fall and spring tests was approximately 150 school days. Assuming that the unsupervised schools achieved 150 days of school work in this time in the nine subjects tested, the supervised schools accomplished the equivalent of 264 days of achievement in the same subjects.

According to all available information, the pupils in the supervised schools were no more intelligent nor were the teachers more competent than those in the unsupervised schools. In fact, in every respect in which both pupils and teachers were compared, they were very similar and whatever differences appeared were insignificant. The only difference so far as can be determined to account for the greater learning on the part of the pupils of Oakland County is that their schools were organized under a systematic program of supervision which the schools of the neighboring county did not have. It is believed, therefore, that this experiment indicates the degree of improvement in instructional efficiency which may be secured by the introduction of a systematic program of supervision into a normal county school organization. In drawing this conclusion, it is recognized that the improvement in the subjects tested may have had some influence upon the subjects not tested.

A second important consideration which should be kept in mind in interpreting the meaning of the improvement made by the supervised pupils is the fact that all pupils in both counties were considerably below standard in achievement at the beginning of the experiment. The results achieved, therefore, should not be interpreted to mean that the supervised schools were greatly superior to standard achievement. The facts should be interpreted to indicate that the achievement was much greater in the supervised schools than in the unsupervised schools, and at the end of the experiment the level of achievement of the supervised schools more nearly approximated the expected standards. The problem arising from this fact is: How would supervision affect the learning of pupils during a second or third year when they were at or above standard achievement?

B. Evaluating the Effectiveness of Supervision by Parishes in Louisiana

In Ascension and Assumption Parishes, Louisiana, a carefully controlled study[1] was made to determine the effectiveness of supervision on a parish-wide basis. The results of this study were as follows:

In September, 1926, the control parish made an average score of 32.5 when tested with the Standard Achievement Test; while in May, 1928, using the same form of the same test they scored 40.26, showing an improvement in composite score of 7.76, which is 23.9 percent of its 1926 score. Similarly, the supervised parish, at the same time and with the same test, scored respectively 30.55 and 42.91, showing an improvement of 12.36, which is 40.4 percent of the 1926 score. The rate of improvement in the supervised parish is therefore greater than that in the control parish by 16.5 percent. It is a conservative assumption that at least as high a rate of advantage was maintained in the first and second grades; in fact, the figures of the tables indicate a higher rate.

In composite scores, in subject scores, in scores by grades, in scores for all grades combined, in all combinations considered, with the sole exception of the subject of spelling considered by itself, the supervised parish showed an unmistakable advantage under the influence of the supervision. The relatively excellent showing made by the control parish in the subject of spelling must be attributed to conditions in that parish rather than to want of uniformity in the supervision.

In the control parish in September, 1926, the average educational quotient of pupils from third to seventh grades inclusive was 88.87; and for May, 1928, it was 91.53, showing an improvement of 2.66 in educational quotient; while in the supervised parish the corresponding quotients were 89.92 and 99.17, or a difference of 9.25.

The average chronological ages in the two parishes were 11.38 years for the supervised parish and 11.79 years for the control parish. An improvement of 9.25 in educational quotient means 9.25/100.00 of 11.38, or 1.05 years' improvement in the educational age of a group of pupils averaging 11.38 years of age. Hence, between the first and final tests the supervised parish improved approximately 12 months. Similarly, 2.66/100.00 of 11.79 years is .31 years or approximately 4 months of improvement for the control parish. This means that the supervised parish gained an advantage in education as measured by the Stanford Tests of 8 months during the 2 years of the experiment among the pupils from third to seventh grades inclusive.

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[1] Lombard, J. E., *Notes on an Experiment in Supervision.* Issued by the State Department of Education, Baton Rouge, La., 1928.

C. An Evaluation of the County Unit Plan of Supervision in Indiana

In 1923 to 1925, under the direction of H. N. Sherwood, state superintendent of public instruction of Indiana, an experimental study was made of the relative efficiency of the county unit plan of supervision. Two counties were chosen in which to demonstrate the value of supervision, and two other counties served as controls. In the former, expert supervisors worked intensively with the teachers; in the latter, there was no supervision. Conditions in these four counties were fairly comparable from various angles including the experience, training, and ability of the teachers.

The objectives of the demonstration were stated more specifically as follows:

1. Improvement of instruction in reading, both as to comprehension and speed; in arithmetic, as to speed and accuracy, and in relating problem-solving to rural needs; and in spelling.
2. Improvement of rural school life and health.
3. Improvement of the materials of instruction.
4. Education of the people with regard to the work of the schools.
5. Better organization and administration of rural schools.

In order to determine the effectiveness of the supervision, the progress made by the pupils in all four counties was measured by means of modified forms of the Stanford Achievement Tests, including reading, arithmetic, language, and spelling, given at the beginning and end of each of the two years of the experiment. The comparison of the progress in the experimental and control counties is contained in Table 28, which shows the percents by which progress in the demonstration counties exceeded progress in the control counties.

TABLE 28.—PERCENTS BY WHICH PROGRESS IN DEMONSTRATION COUNTIES EXCEEDED PROGRESS IN THE CONTROL COUNTIES

Grade	1924	1925
3	7.3	14.6
4	6.5	25.4
5	17.9	31.4
6	23.8	24.6
7	14.8	37.9
8	14.3	26.5
Average	14.9	25.7

It can be seen from Table 28 that in every grade in both years the pupils in the demonstration schools made more progress in achievement, as measured by these tests, than was made by the pupils in the control schools. The percents of excess were greater in the second year of the experiment than in the first year, showing the cumulative effect of the program of supervision. Data are not available for subsequent years. It would be interesting to determine what the maximum cumulative effect of such a supervisory program might be.

Other less easily measured evidences of the value of supervision listed in the Indiana report are given in Part III of this chapter.

D. Pittman's Study of Rural Supervision[1]

Pittman's study of the value of rural supervision, which is discussed in detail in Part III of this chapter, showed that pupils in supervised schools advanced approximately 194 percent as far in achievement, measured by tests, as pupils in unsupervised schools.

E. An Evaluation of Four Types of Supervisory Procedures in the Supervision of Geography

In the fall of 1918, a study[2] was made in Detroit to determine the relative effectiveness of four types of general supervisory procedures applied to the supervision of geography. The difficulties encountered in undertaking such a study in a large city system are made very clear by certain complications due to shift in population and other factors that arose in the course of the experiment. However, conditions were controlled as carefully as possible.

On the basis of the results of standard tests in locational geography given on September 18 of that year, the schools were divided into four equal groups. Another equivalent form of the test was given on November 14—a six weeks' interval. Each of these four groups was supervised according to the following plan:

> It was agreed that the supervisor of geography should not even enter the buildings of the schools in Group I; that the teacher should teach absolutely without any supervision except that of the mere giving of the tests themselves. The schools in Group II were visited, but on the old inspection basis. The supervisor did not see the results of the tests in these schools and purposely refrained from doing more than visiting the teachers' rooms and making such pleasant and general remarks about what he saw as supervisors were accustomed to make in the days before measurement had made possible definite aims and definite knowledge of conditions.
>
> For the third group of schools, the supervisor received from the department of educational research definite information in regard to the general standing of each school in the September test. He then visited the schools having the lowest general standings and did his best to make sure both teachers and principals understood what they were expected to do and were attacking their problems by their best methods.
>
> For the fourth group of schools, the information furnished the supervisor was as detailed as it was possible to make it, and was based on the class scores, so that his time might be spent only with teachers whose classes were below the general level.

Group I. Unsupervised	Group III. Supervised by Schools
Group II. Inspected	Group IV. Supervised by Classes.

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[1] Pittman, M. S., *The Value of School Supervision.* Baltimore, Warwick & York, Inc., 1921. 140 pp.

[2] Courtis, S. A., "Measuring the Effects of Supervision in Geography," *School and Society*, Vol. X, pp. 61-70, July 19, 1919.

The difficulties that arose in attempting to evaluate the results of the experiment are commented on as follows:

> Although the four groups of schools were made equal on the basis of their scores in the first test, many causes operated to destroy that equality. The changes in membership and in organization were unequal in the different groups. Similar conditions prevailed for many factors. Accordingly, at the time of the second test, when the retabulation of scores in the initial test had been made, it was necessary to go through the available material, and select again four groups, made up of comparable classes and having the same retabulated score in the initial test.
>
> Even in Detroit, this selection reduced the number of children upon which our final conclusions are based from 25,000 to between three and four thousand. Yet in no other way could comparable equal initial groups be secured and the effects of factors which had nothing to do with the experiment be eliminated. Each group has the same median score, the same variability, and almost exactly the same frequencies by grades. As the selection was made on the basis of the scores in the initial test and without reference to the scores in the final test, the selection itself was not a factor in determining the result.

The results of the experiment are given in Table 29.

TABLE 29.—RELATIVE GAINS IN KNOWLEDGE OF GEOGRAPHY OF FOUR GROUPS OF PUPILS, ONE GROUP UNSUPERVISED AND THREE GROUPS EACH SUPERVISED DIFFERENTLY

(30 Schools Per Group)

Group	Scores		Gain	Possible Gain	Achieved Percent of Possible Gain
	Initial	Final			
I	456	725	269	544	49.5
II	456	750	294	544	54.0
III	456	825	369	544	68.0
IV	456	833	377	544	69.4

Table 29 shows that:

> In the unsupervised group, the teachers succeeded in making 49.5 percent of the desired gain. Supervision by inspection raised the figure to 54 percent, supervision by schools to 68 percent, and by classes to 69.4 percent. That is, the visit of the supervisor under the conditions of Group IV resulted in an increase of achievement of 40 percent over the achievement made by Group I.
>
> As the point scores upon which the results so far described are based represent unusual and arbitrary weightings, it was thought best to confirm the conclusions by recalculating the scores on a strictly measurement basis. This is possible because the actual scores made by the children are recorded on the tabulation sheets. The children in the unsupervised group were able to locate correctly 43 states in the final test, a gain of 15 states in the median score of Group I.

Effect of Supervision—Results

(Median Number of States Located)

Group	Sept.	Nov.	Gain
I	28.1	43.5	15.4
III	27.2	46.3	19.1
Percent of possible gain: I, 70; III, 83.			

In the group supervised by schools the gain was 19 states. That is, as measured by the change in the median scores of the group, adequate supervision increased the effects of teaching 30 percent. In terms of the percent the actual gain was of the desired gain, the results are: Group I, 70 percent, Group III, 83 percent.

A clearer picture of the total changes taking place is gained from an inspection of the changes in the distribution. In Group I, the distributions for the initial and final tests overlap to the extent of 71 percent. That is, in the final test the net result is that 29 percent of the children have higher scores than they did in the beginning. For Group III the figures became 46 percent. Put in different words, the statement would be, out of every hundred children in schools without supervision, 29 were changed by the teaching. The effect of supervision was to raise this number to 46, a gain of 17 children. Surely an agency which affects the work of teachers to such an extent that, without any change in the teachers, the time, the equipment, or the size of class, more than half again as many children are benefited by the teaching, is an important agency.

F. An Evaluation of Four Types of Supervisory Procedures in Handwriting

In Detroit, on the basis of the results of a test in handwriting given grades 3-8 at the beginning of the semester, the schools were divided into four equal groups.[1] The same four supervisory procedures as in the geography experiment, described on pages 104-6, were used, one group being unvisited; the second inspected only; the third supervised by schools, chiefly the schools low in the tests; and the fourth supervised by classes, chiefly the classes low in the initial test. At the close of the semester a final test was given. A comparison of the gross results for each group is given in Table 30.

TABLE 30.—COMPARISON OF GROSS SCORES ON INITIAL AND FINAL TESTS IN HANDWRITING OF FOUR GROUPS OF PUPILS, ONE GROUP UNSUPERVISED AND THREE GROUPS EACH SUPERVISED DIFFERENTLY

Gross Scores	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Retabulation	6,935	6,943	6,969	6,931
Final score	8,460	8,778	9,020	8,819
Gain	1,525	1,835	2,051	1,888
Percent of possible gain	30.1	36.2	40.7	37.2

As can be seen from the table, the largest amounts of growth were made in the three groups that were supervised. The schools which were supervised intensively by classes made a smaller gain than those that were supervised by schools as a whole and only a slightly greater gain than was made by schools that were merely inspected. A substantial gain was made in the schools which were not visited by the supervisor.

As in the geography experiment, the effectiveness of the supervisory activities was measured by the growth of the pupils in the basic skills involved in the subject. No data are given as to changes in teaching procedures or methods or growth in teaching skill that may have resulted from the supervisory program.

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[1] Unpublished report, supplied by Miss Lena Shaw, supervisor of handwriting, Detroit, Mich.

An investigation by Ashbaugh[1] showed that in certain situations supervised city schools did only slightly better in handwriting than unsupervised rural schools. The results of this study and what Ashbaugh apparently considers to be the causes of the small differences found are given in the following statement:

> Supervision without definite goals and objective means of checking progress is likely to be of little value. A state-wide study of handwriting in Iowa a few years ago shed a little light upon this phase of the topic under discussion. Rural schools in that state have practically no supervision, since one county superintendent for 150 to 225 one-room schools scattered over an area of 500 to 900 square miles cannot possibly supervise much, even if he had nothing else to do. And he certainly has many other duties.
>
> On the other hand, all cities of 10,000 or more had, and had had for a number of years, special supervisors of this subject. A single system of penmanship instruction was in use in most of these cities. But definite goals of attainment in terms of specific rates of speed and qualities of form were not in use and objective means of checking attainment were also lacking.
>
> When, therefore, the samples of writing were carefully rated by the Ayres scale, the results revealed that the median quality of handwriting in all grades in city schools averaged less than one-half step on the scale better than the quality of writing of the rural children, and in the third and fifth grades the quality of writing of the rural children was actually better than that of city children. A similar survey in the fundamentals of arithmetic showed an advantage for city children of only about one-half the average inter-grade advance. Such lack of significant difference between the achievement of supervised and non-supervised schools points clearly to ineffective supervision.

Summary of studies evaluating supervision in terms of measured changes in the achievement of children—The results of the experimental studies that have been described on pages 99-107 show clearly in every case that the growth of the achievement of pupils in supervised schools was greater than in unsupervised schools. In each case supervision has been defined as "personal supervision;" that is, in supervised schools a person or a group of persons performed various types of activities, the effects of which were measured by growth of pupils in achievement. In unsupervised schools there was no "personal supervision." No attempt was made to determine the changes in teaching procedures, growth in teaching skill, and other important changes that might have resulted from the supervisory activities. In none of these experiments was the value of supervision over an extended period of time, such as three or four years, determined.

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[1] Ashbaugh, E. J., "Some Essentials in School Supervision," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. VI, No. 2, pp. 116-25, September, 1922.

II. Evaluation of Supervision in Terms of Measured Changes in Teaching Procedures

Technics for making objective studies of teaching practices are now available—It is difficult to give an adequate picture of the teaching in a school. An activity rather than a static situation must be described. Teaching is a process rather than a product, a process that is constantly changing, difficult to control, and subject to the influence of many variables. The most important of these are the native equipment of the child, his environment, and the teacher, whose task it is to create as effective a total learning situation for each child in the class as possible. The evaluation of the work in any classroom under present conditions is largely determined by the personal prejudices of the observer. There is little agreement among educators as to what constitutes the most effective methods of instruction. This is evidenced by the great variation in the rating of a lesson by a group of supervisors. The differences in the judgments are due in large part to the lack of definite standards which have the same meaning to all observers of the work of the teacher in a particular lesson.

In the *Second Yearbook* of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction,[1] numerous procedures for making objective studies of teaching practices, which have in certain cases been used as the basis for evaluating supervision, are collected and evaluated.

The technics described in that yearbook make it possible: (1) To enumerate various items concerning teaching in the classroom in quantitative terms; (2) to describe in a meaningful, objective way the quality of teaching either in one room or in a large number of rooms; (3) to make comparisons between conditions in a number of places; (4) to measure the effectiveness of the supervisory program in terms of the changes that are produced in the educational situation; and (5) to set up a program for evaluating teaching procedures and other conditions revealed by a survey of instruction.

In this section, the results of the application of similar procedures to the experimental evaluation of supervision are described.

A. The Effectiveness of Supervision in Reading Measured through Changes in Teaching Procedures

In Minneapolis, a supervisory program in reading[2] resulted in a considerable change in the type of teaching that was being done in the field of work-type reading. Since this is practically the only experimental study available in which an attempt has actually been made to measure the effectiveness of a supervisory program in terms of the changes in teaching practices, the experiment is reported here in considerable detail.

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[1] *Scientific Method in Supervision,* The Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Section V, "Technics for Evaluating Methods of Making Objective Studies of Classroom Procedures," pp. 193-234.

[2] Brueckner, L. J.; and Cutright, Prudence, "A Technic for Measuring the Efficiency of Supervision," *Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. XVI, pp. 323-31, December, 1927.

Preliminary experimental work showed that it was possible for a group of individuals to observe a lesson in reading and to determine the major objectives through the nature of the activities carried on during the lesson. To facilitate such analysis a detailed list of the commonly accepted objectives of reading was prepared, and each was supplemented by comments to explain it.

When once it had been decided that the basis of the supervisory program in Minneapolis should be a study of the objectives of work-reading, the next question was how to secure, in the most economical and effective way, the desired information concerning current teaching practices in the elementary grades. Since eighty-four elementary schools were to be included in the survey, it was obvious that the investigation could not be made by a single group of trained supervisors from the office of the superintendent of schools. Moreover, it was felt that the participation in the survey should be as widespread as possible. For this reason, the survey of reading objectives was made by the principals of the buildings. To insure a clear understanding of the problems before the survey, and a thorough knowledge of the technics to be used, the principals were given preliminary training in the selection of the objectives. A set of mimeographed descriptions of lessons was prepared; and, during a special meeting, the principals were asked to read the lessons carefully and select the major objective of each lesson. As a guide in this activity, the principals were given a list of objectives. A high percent of agreement in their selection of objectives was found. A similar result was obtained from classes in supervision at the University of Minnesota, where perfect agreement regarding the objectives of some lessons was shown, while on a few lessons there were differences of opinion, due likely to the inexperience of the untrained supervisors. As has been pointed out, the objectives of lessons in the classroom are easily determined except in cases where the lesson lacks an apparent objective. This does not invalidate the technic which was used in this survey, but rather raises the question of the efficiency of the teaching. Lessons without a definite objective are not as satisfactory as those in which an objective is easily discerned.

Each principal followed this practice meeting with a short period of observation in his own building. The teachers then were asked to prepare lessons which they thought demonstrated their most effective types of work-reading. Only one lesson for each teacher was observed in order to secure a cross section of current practices. On a special card, see Figure IV, prepared

FIGURE IV.—PRINCIPAL'S RECORD OF EACH LESSON'S OBJECTIVES

Study of Reading Objectives **Minneapolis Public Schools**

School Hyde Park Grade observed 3B Room 106
Length of period in minutes 35 Did you observe the entire lesson? Yes
Number of pupils in instructional group 16 Otherwise engaged 17

1. Indicate by number the major objectives or aims of the lesson
10 c 10 d 31 7 c
2. List books and materials used. Nature Study Reader, Book II
3. On the back of this card list the chief reading activities of this lesson.

for the purpose, the principal indicated the objective of the lesson, using the code number which corresponded to the number given to each of the objectives in the summary shown in Table 31. In addition to this, a record was

TABLE 31.—A COMPARISON OF THE FIRST AND SECOND SURVEYS OF STUDY OF READING OBJECTIVES IN MINNEAPOLIS

Objectives in work-reading	Number of Lessons Reported		Percent of Lessons Reported	
	First survey	Second survey	First survey	Second survey
1	2	3	4	5
I. In which silent reading predominates:				
A. *Ability to locate material quickly requires:*				
1. Knowledge of and ability to use an index	30	54	4.84	8.64
2. Ability to use a table of contents	11	27	1.77	4.32
3. Ability to use the dictionary	20	11	3.23	1.76
4. Ability to use a library file	1	2	.16	.32
5. Ability to use reference material	10	24	1.61	3.84
6. Ability to use maps, tables, graphs	4	17	.65	2.72
7. Ability to skim	102	67	16.45	10.72
Total	178	202	28.71	32.32
B. *Ability to comprehend quickly what is read requires:*				
8. The establishment of rhythmic and rapid eye-movement	22	2	3.55	.32
9. The elimination of lip reading and vocalization	17	3	2.74	.48
10. Acquiring a vocabulary of accurate meanings	122	48	19.68	7.68
11. The habit of vigorous reading	40	2	6.45	.32
Total	201	55	32.42	8.80
C. *Ability to select and evaluate material needed:*				
12. Judging the validity of information	2	6	.32	.96
13. Choosing ideas from different sources which explain or supplement one another	2	9	.32	1.44
14. Discovering different ideas in different sources				
15. Deciding whether a given question is answered	9	37	1.45	5.92
16. Ability to sort essential and non-essential statements	4	11	.65	1.76
17. Telling what questions are answered by material	14	22	2.26	3.52
18. Finding the solution of a problem	21	44	3.39	7.04
Total	52	129	8.39	20.64
D. *Ability to organize what is read:*				
19. Practice in picking out central ideas	31	26	5.00	4.16
20. Practice in selecting main topics	54	69	8.71	11.04
21. Practice in outlining	48	99	7.74	15.84
22. Practice in summarizing	11	12	1.78	1.92
Total	144	206	23.23	32.96
E. *Ability to remember what is read:*				
23. Practice in selecting things to remember (see ability to organize)	10	11	1.61	1.76
24. An understanding of the best way to memorize				
25. An understanding of the necessity for over-learning				
26. Practice in remembering	6	4	.97	.64
Total	16	15	2.58	2.40
F. *A knowledge of the best sources of materials:*				
27. Practice in selecting the proper reference books to gain an answer	1	2	.16	.32
Total	1	2	.16	.32

TABLE 31.—A COMPARISON OF THE FIRST AND SECOND SURVEYS OF STUDY OF READING OBJECTIVES IN MINNEAPOLIS —(Continued)

Objectives in work-reading	Number of Lessons Reported		Percent of Lessons Reported	
	First survey	Second survey	First survey	Second survey
1	2	3	4	5
II. Oral reading:				
A. *A knowledge of what makes oral reading effective:*				
28. Pupils formulate a statement of the things which make oral reading effective	2	3	.32	.48
29. Pupils discuss why the oral reading of certain directions or announcements was not effective	1	....	.16	....
30. Pupils practice to make their oral reading more effective	8	4	1.29	.64
Total	11	7	1.77	1.12
B. *Ability to select material which is pertinent to a given oral reading situation:*				
31. Selecting and reading to the group material to prove a point under discussion	2	1	.32	.16
Total	2	1	.32	.16
C. *Skimming in preparation for oral reading:*				
32. Children discuss and illustrate the difference between reading unfamiliar and familiar material	1	....	.16	....
Total	1	....	.16	....
D. *An understanding of the purpose to be served by the reading:*				
33. Practice in reading material to serve different purposes	....	2	....	.32
Total	....	2	....	.32
E. *Ability to recognize and pronounce all the words in a selection:*				
34. Phonics	1	2	.16	.32
35. Word analysis	1	....	.16	....
36. Drill on lists of words commonly mispronounced	3	1	.49	.16
37. Using the dictionary to secure the correct pronunciation of a word	2	....	.32	....
Total	7	3	1.13	.48
F. *Ability to use the voice in a pleasing, effective way:*				
38. The habit of noting the effect of a pleasing voice upon an audience	....	1	....	.16
Total	....	1	....	.16
G. *Ability to interpret the thought of a selection accurately:*				
39. Practice in reading selections to give different interpretations	2	....	.32	....
Total	2	....	.32	....
H. *Proper attitude toward an audience:*				
40. Practice in reading announcements	2	....	.32	....
41. Practice in reading directions for making things	....	....	....	....
42. Practice in reading informational material which the rest of the group wants to know	3	2	.49	.32
Total	5	2	.81	.32
Grand total	620	625	100.0	100.0

made of the material used in the lesson and the types of activities which were carried on. At the end of the survey, these cards were sent to the research department, and the data were tabulated.

The first survey was followed by a series of special bulletins on different phases of the teaching of reading on which the teachers wished help. A series of demonstration lessons for each grade was given on the types of reading not stressed according to the results of the first survey. The city was divided into districts, and all teachers were expected to attend these meetings. There were model lessons in training pupils to select and evaluate what they read and in ability to organize what had been read. These lessons were taught by teachers who volunteered their services. Many local meetings were held by principals. A number of reading specialists, such as C. J. Anderson and G. T. Buswell, were brought to the city by the teachers' organizations to discuss different aspects of the problem; and the schools supplied themselves with the best available literature on the subject. There were numerous special demonstration lessons by teachers in individual buildings. Special talks were given by members of the research department, and the attention of all the teachers within the system was focused on this problem during the period of special study.

After this period of training, a resurvey was made in which the same scheme was repeated. Teachers again taught lessons which they thought illustrated their most effective types of work-reading on which the principals, in turn, made their reports. The results of this investigation are also shown in Table 31. On the first survey, 620 lessons were reported and on the second, 625. Table 31 contains a distribution of the lessons with each of the reading objectives reported on both surveys. The second column gives the number of lessons with each of the specific objectives reported on the first survey; the third column contains the same data for the resurvey; and the last two columns show the percents of the total number of lessons in each survey. The totals and percents are also given for each major ability.

An analysis of Table 31 shows that there were some interesting shifts in the teaching of reading in the interim between the surveys. For example, in the first survey there were 178 lessons whose objective was one of those listed under the heading, the "ability to locate material quickly (IA)." In the resurvey there were 202 lessons which had one of these objectives. These totals are respectively 28.71 and 32.32 percent of the lessons reported. While the total number of lessons with this objective remained almost the same, an analysis of the distributions for the specific abilities listed under this heading shows a considerable shift. For example, the percent of lessons on the "ability to skim" decreased from 16.45 to 10.72; lessons on the "ability to use an index" increased from 4.84 percent to 8.64 percent. Other variations also can be noted. There was a decrease in the number of lessons having as their objective the "ability to comprehend quickly what is read."

On the first survey 32.42 percent of the lessons reported had this objective; on the resurvey, only 8.8 percent. This shift can be explained by an analysis of the data for the next two headings. The number of lessons whose objectives were to develop the "ability to select and evaluate material" increased from 8.39 to 20.64 percent; and the lessons to develop the "ability to organize what is read," from 23.23 to 32.96 percent of the total. This shift shows clearly the effect of the special demonstration lessons which were given during the training period. Most of the lessons during the period of demonstration were illustrations of these special objectives, because of the relatively small use of them reported in the first survey. This change in emphasis may be considered a direct measure of the effectiveness of the supervisory program.

The remainder of the table shows that there has been practically no other change. The distribution of lessons on the objectives of oral reading were about the same on both surveys. This also can be explained, since the demonstration lessons in the training period did not touch oral reading.

The information which has been collected does not give any evaluation of the improvement in the technics of teaching reading. It merely shows the objectives of the lessons the teachers taught after a period of training. From casual observations and from comments by principals, however, a decided improvement in the methods of teaching has been found. Lessons now are usually taught with more clean-cut objectives. A much wider use is being made of the content material in history and geography, as a means toward the development of special reading abilities; and there has been a direct transfer of the effects of this supervisory program to the teaching of the social studies. Stress is being given to the development of proper study habits. Many schools are preparing sets of drill exercises for developing various aspects of each ability. Primary teachers are devising seat work which will give training in the basic elements of each skill. The program of work-reading is to be followed by a similar period of intensive study of the factors which are involved in recreational reading. The technic which was used in making the survey has certain limitations. The picture of the teaching of reading secured through the survey may not reveal the real status, since teachers were asked to teach lessons which they thought were their best. It is possible, therefore, that this distribution of lessons is not typical, although this is doubtful because of the large number of lessons that were reported. It may be of interest to know that surveys in a number of smaller cities in Minnesota yielded a distribution of objectives similar to that found on the first survey in Minneapolis.

This technic also does not evaluate the efficiency of the teaching itself. It merely gives a picture of what, in the judgment of the principal, were the major objectives of the lessons observed. It does not show, for example, whether the teaching was skillfully done, whether the material that was used to achieve the objective was well selected, or whether the pupils increased in ability under the training given. Means can be developed which will make this information available, but it cannot be secured with the technic here employed.

The survey did not measure other desirable outcomes adequately. For instance, no measurement was given of the increased knowledge of available reading materials which the teachers had acquired. The reports showed that principals were almost unanimously of the opinion that the teaching of reading had greatly improved during the period of special study.

The outline of objectives may not be adequate, since there are undoubtedly lessons in which other types of reading abilities are developed that are desirable; very few, however, were reported. The increased stress upon work-reading may have resulted in a lack of attention to recreatory reading. To offset this, the schools at the present time are engaged in a special study of the objectives and technics of the teaching of such reading.

The values of the technic that was employed are numerous. The procedure which was used made it possible to collect a great deal of information in a short time, with resulting economy in effort for the supervisory group. In this survey, the contacts with the procedure included large numbers of people. The conditions under which this distribution was made were as carefully controlled as possible. The cycle plan of supervision, used in Minneapolis, made it possible to focus the entire school organization on the special study of one problem.

By the use of this technic supervision was made objective. The supervisor's attention was focused upon problems of classroom procedure and its improvement. When needs were revealed, he could proceed, using the facts gathered as the ground for his changes. The effects of supervisory activity were also measured in objective terms.

By this scheme the principals are able to help the teachers evaluate their own work. This is done by asking them to check on the list the objectives which governed the lessons taught during a certain period. The teachers in one school are asked to report each week the objectives of their reading lessons.

This technic suggests the possibility of developing methods for measuring the teaching of other subjects. Undoubtedly, the method used in this survey can be used for subjects such as history, geography, and arithmetic. The facts of the survey made clear the places where training was necessary and provided a reliable basis for the supervisory program.

The technic developed in Minneapolis can be applied to the requirements of any community and the instruments will be thoroughly usable. The chief problems connected with such a survey are: The careful organization of the program; the devising of the instruments and devices used in collecting the information; the training of those who are to make the survey; the preparation of bulletins and outlines for study during the period following the survey; the selection of the types of work to be done during the period of teacher training; and the arrangement of demonstration lessons.

B. An Evaluation of a Supervisory Program in Spelling in Hamtramck, Michigan

In Hamtramck, a supervisory program was initiated in 1927 to determine how closely the teaching of spelling conformed to the principles involved in a basic philosophy of education which had been officially adopted by the school system. These goals, as applied to the teaching of spelling, are stated in an unpublished report of this experiment by Superintendent Keyworth, as follows:

Goals—The purpose of education is to develop individuals who can live successfully in a democracy.

Successful living means: (1) They must be able to see the problems in their own individual and social life; (2) they must be able to solve these problems successfully; and (3) they must will to take the necessary steps to achieve the solution.

Methods—The methods used to achieve these objectives will be those which develop in the child in the largest measure: (1) the ideals of worthy individual and social purposes; (2) powers of self-direction, self-appraisal, and self-control; and (3) desire and ability to work cooperatively with others in the solution of social problems.

The problem immediately arising from the acceptance of these goals and methods is the measurement of them. It would be superfluous to set up certain objectives and then to neglect them.

In accordance with these goals and objectives there are five outcomes that characterize the behavior of children:

1. To see problems
2. To purpose and plan to solve problems
3. To cooperate with others in the solution of problems
4. To appraise the success of their efforts
5. To control themselves while making efforts.

These objectives represent the goals of a certain philosophy of education. If these objectives are to be achieved, then the plans, methods, technics, and procedures of classroom instruction must be directed toward their achievement, and some means must be provided for the measurement of progress toward their attainment.

Spelling is an activity. Achievement in spelling is an activity achievement. The goals of education as applied to the spelling activity are:

1. To see spelling problems
2. To purpose and plan to solve spelling problems
3. To cooperate with others in the solution of spelling problems
4. To appraise the success of their efforts in solving spelling problems
5. To control themselves in the making of all effort necessary to see, plan, solve, and appraise the solution of problems in spelling.

We are not here concerned with the merits of the goals to be achieved or with the validity of the philosophy underlying them. We are assuming that these goals are correct, and that a change in instruction which facilitates the achievement of the goals is an improvement.

In order to secure a quantitative picture of present practice and to make it possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the supervisory program in terms of changes produced during the program, data were secured on the following points:

> The appraisal program rests upon information derived from: (1) measurement of the amount of supervision teachers have received: (2) measurement of changes produced in plans, methods, and technics of teachers specifically as a result of this supervision; and (3) measurement of the effect upon the children by the changes in teachers produced by this supervision.

The detailed technics used in securing these data are described in the report as follows:

> The work was started by making a survey of the status of the teaching of spelling. This survey was made by means of a descriptive rating sheet, on which could be recorded the activities of both teacher and children. The rating sheet was prepared by the department of instruction and was then submitted to principals, and through them to teachers, for criticism and suggestions. The rating sheet was refined in accordance with valid criticisms and suggestions, and then submitted to principals to try out, and also to teachers for self-rating. Again the rating sheet was refined in accordance with valuable suggestions made. After final revision, the principals practiced rating teachers and comparing their ratings with one another until they had become sufficiently skillful to rate independently the same teachers and arrive approximately at the same score.
>
> The next step was to rate the spelling teachers in the entire system, each principal rating his own teachers. The results were assembled by the director of instruction, and furnished an objective descriptive account of the status of teaching at that time.
>
> Spelling tests were given to children to determine (1) mastery of words in the course of study, and (2) power to spell unlearned words. These tests were devised by the director of instruction to meet their specific respective purposes. The results of these tests showed that while some children could spell well words they had learned, many other children did not exhibit the degree of control which was desired.
>
> The survey revealed contrasting situations with regard to both aims and methods. The results were then given to the principals with a list of suggested problems for teachers to check as being most vital in their teaching. The remainder of the school year, 1927, was spent in a discussion of the goals in spelling, the methods of teaching, and the types of problems to be given consideration, with the result that a program of work for the year 1927-28 was provided.

During the year 1927-28, an attack was made upon these problems with experimental and creative work aimed at their solutions. As a result of this program, a manual and course of study in spelling were built up, which expressed the basic philosophy of education, and which described methods of applying the philosophy.

In 1928-29, the supervisory program consisted of the appraisal of the effects of the introduction of this manual and course of study and the appraisal of the effects of supervision.

At the time this Yearbook was prepared, the results of this program were not available in complete form. However, the report gives some information as to the changes that occurred in the teaching of spelling as a result of the supervisory program. The technic for determining these changes and the extent of the changes were as follows:

All teachers in both groups are rated with the descriptive rating sheets. These rating sheets are to determine pupil-directed or teacher-directed activity. The rating of the Hamtramck teachers this semester will be compared with the rating made two years ago and with the rating of the teachers in the other two systems or the control groups. The comparison of the Hamtramck teachers with those of two years ago is given in Table 32.

TABLE 32.—CHANGES IN TEACHERS FROM TEACHER-DOMINATION TO PUPIL-ACTIVITY TYPE

Survey	Types		Teaching Skill								
	Teacher-domination	Pupil-activity	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1927...	94	6	0	0	0	0	7	17	52	24	0
1929...	14	86	0	4	4	18	25	16	18	15	0

Sixty-seven percent of the group in 1929 survey were included in 1927 survey.

Read table thus: In 1927, 94 percent of these teachers were of the teacher-domination type, and 6 percent were of the pupil-activity type. Zero percent of the teachers were rated 9, 8, 7, or 6 in teaching skill; 7 percent were rated 5; and 17 percent, 4. Similarly read other data.

As can be seen from the table, the prevailing type of teaching in 1927, at the time of the initial survey, was the teacher-domination type. All ratings were made by the same individual. At the time of the resurvey in 1929, the prevailing type was the pupil-activity type. These data show that the supervisory program had resulted in almost a complete change in the methods of teaching spelling in the entire system, thus showing the effectiveness of the supervisory program in securing desired changes in teaching. The changes were in the direction of those that were necessary to insure the functioning of the accepted educational philosophy.

The data concerning teaching skill show that in general the skill in teaching by the method called teacher-domination type was at a considerably higher level at the time of the initial survey than was found to exist in the teaching by the pupil-activity type at the time of the resurvey. Evidently there had been a loss in skill in teaching in making the change from the teacher-domination type to pupil-activity type. This was to be expected because of the newness of the method and the lack of practice in applying it. It is reasonable to assume that in a relatively short time the average skill in using the new procedures will be at least as high as that found at the time of the initial survey.

In this experiment, other studies to determine the specific results of supervision deal with data from records that are being kept by each teacher "to determine all influences that affect or modify his teaching each week and also a record of the amount and kind of supervision each teacher receives." Tests are given "to determine the changes that have taken place in the powers and abilities of the pupils to spell as a result of the changes that have taken place in the teaching of the two groups." Preliminary tabulations of the tests, according to Superintendent Keyworth, show that pupils in the schools of Hamtramck are spelling better than the pupils in the two control school systems.

This experiment is one of the most comprehensive and carefully controlled investigations that have yet been undertaken to evaluate the effectiveness of supervision.

Summary of studies evaluating supervision in terms of measured changes in teaching procedures—The studies reviewed on pages 108-18 show that supervision may result in marked changes in teaching practices. Methods are being developed by means of which these changes can be measured objectively. Clearly any adequate evaluation of a supervisory program must take into account such evidences of the results of supervision as have been briefly described. Changes can be produced. The concern of the administrator and supervisor is to determine the changes that are desirable or necessary.

III. Evaluation of Supervision in Terms of Observed Changes in the Teaching or Learning Situation and in the Community

There are no objective means by which many of the important outcomes of supervision can be determined. Many of these "plainly observable" outcomes can be listed in descriptive terms as a basis for guidance in evaluating supervision. Rough estimates of gain or loss can be made.

A. Typical Statements Showing the Value of Supervision

In a report [1] on some of the outcomes of ten years of supervision in a Maryland county the following "observable" outcomes as reflected in the ability of the teachers to conduct their own teachers' meetings are listed:

1. It was evident that certainly 90 percent of teachers were thinking with principles in mind. An occasional leader stood out so strongly that the supervisor felt the strength manifested might well be used to assign that leader as a helping teacher whenever possible.
2. It was almost self-evident that the teachers were speaking a common professional language, were intelligent about depending upon the impartial expert, were using professional readings, and shared with pleasure the same professional friends.
3. The *esprit de corps* was extremely gratifying. It was seen in the courtesy shown the challengers of debatable points, and in the appreciation accorded a colleague's strength.
4. Values seemed to be treated with intelligent discrimination, and devices and details were subordinated to their proper place.

In Miss Crabbs' [2] study we find this statement:

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[1] *Worthwhile Teachers Meetings*, Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 1, September, 1923. 87 pp.

[2] Crabbs, Lelah M., *Measuring Efficiency in Supervision and Teaching*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 175. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. 98 pp.

Any measurement program ought to justify itself in part by showing educational gains on the part of the staff in terms of such matters as:

1. Keener interest in current educational problems.
2. Better understanding of the tools of their profession, such as methods, curriculums, and available diagnostic and remedial measures.
3. Greater focusing of attention on balance of emphasis in the various phases of instruction.
4. A more scientific attitude on the part of the staff toward their profession, as shown by a desire and willingness to cooperate pleasantly in research and experiment being carried on for the purpose of improvement in education in general.

In commenting on the value of the work of the Director of Instruction in Colorado State Teachers College, President Frasier lists the following outcomes:[1]

1. Courses have been better defined. The president requested outlines of all existing courses. A comparison of these outlines showed much overlapping and gaps. These errors are being remedied. All new courses must have the approval of the curriculum committee, of which the director of instruction is chairman.
2. Examinations have been vastly improved. In some departments the examinations given were adequate. In most departments they were not. The final examinations given at the end of the last quarter were excellent examples of modern methods of checking the results of teaching. This has been a most worthwhile undertaking.
3. Some good teachers who were on the verge of failure have been saved to the institution. In a few cases, all that was necessary was a series of visitations to classes, followed by conferences over material and method. To a teacher who is academically well trained, but lacks professional preparation, the director of instruction is a great help and oftentimes the one who saves the teacher from complete failure.
4. Some poor teachers have been dropped from our payroll. In every case, this has been done only when the director of instruction and the president have both been sure that it was impossible to do anything for the teacher.
5. New teachers through group meetings and individual conferences start off with less wasted effort than ever before.
6. Students through their cooperation have a new and healthy interest in curriculum, courses of study, and teaching methods.

B. A Study of the Value of Supervision in Rural Schools

In Pittman's study [2] of the value of supervision in rural schools, we have an excellent example of an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of a supervisory program from a number of points of view. This study made important contributions to the scientific study of supervision both in its methods and in its results. Pittman defined his problem as follows:

> *Does the supervision of schools pay? If so, to what extent, in what ways, and under what conditions?* What is the effect of supervision upon the work of rural schools when supervision is done according to the zone plan?

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[1] Frasier, G. W.; and Armentrout, W. D., "Experiments in Teachers College Administration," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XIV, pp. 165-9, March, 1928.

[2] Pittman, M. S., *The Value of School Supervision.* Baltimore, Warwick & York, Inc., 1921. 140 pp.

More specifically stated, the experiment was concerned with the effect of supervision upon the work of rural schools when supervision is done according to the zone plan. Pittman defines the zone plan as follows:

> A plan of supervision, in which the supervisor divides his entire supervisory district into territorial units, each of which serves as the territorial limits for one week of supervisory effort, has been designated by the writer as the zone plan. The purpose back of such territorial organization is to provide for systematic supervision of classroom instruction, for convenient, effective, and democratic teachers' meetings, and for the development of a community consciousness on the part of rural communities with a view to inspiring and facilitating more effective social, educational, and commercial action. Such a plan was used in this experiment.

Pittman divided the schools used in the experiment into two equivalent groups. The groups were equated according to the standings of the pupils in thirteen school functions and were made as nearly equal as possible in population, wealth, and certain other factors. One half, the control group, received no direct personal supervision, whereas the experimental half received intensive supervision for seven months through bulletins, supervisory visits, meetings, institutes, and several other kinds of supervisory devices and technics. By means of educational achievement tests given at the beginning and at the end of the experimental program, Pittman found the growth in achievement of the pupils in the two groups of schools. He also secured data concerning various other factors which might have been directly influenced by the supervisory program. An abbreviated statement of Pittman's conclusions is as follows:

1. Children in the supervised schools, when measured by equated differences and by percentages of progress of the experimental group measured in terms of the progress of the control group, advanced approximately 194 percent as far during the seven months in the particular functions under investigation as did the children with whom they were compared.
2. Upon this basis and assuming the social value of this type of educational material, the value of the service of one supervisor, who would produce such a difference in the total results of the school work for forty-five school rooms similar to those supervised, would be $45,102.15 per school year for that service alone. (See original report for figures upon which this is based.) [1]
3. The teachers under supervision did, approximately, four times as much professional reading as they had done during the previous year and four times as much as the group of teachers with whom they were compared during the year of the experiment.
4. The average attendance, measured in terms of total enrolment, was 76 percent for the year in the supervised schools as against 70.7 percent in the unsupervised schools.
5. In the schools under supervision, all of the children in the grades from three to eight, inclusive, made excellent progress with the greater gains usually in the lower grades. In the schools not having supervision, the children in the grades below the seventh did not make the progress which might have been expected if

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[1] Pittman, M. S., *The Value of School Supervision.* Baltimore, Warwick & York, Inc., 1921. 140 pp.

the progress of the seventh and eighth grades were taken as a standard by which to compare them.

6. Supervision served to keep in school children who were in the seventh and eighth grades. Of the children who entered those grades of the supervised schools, 92 percent continued in school to the end of the year. In the unsupervised schools only 69 percent completed the school year.
7. Supervision promoted the social life of the community.

This study is one of the first in which an effort was made to measure the effectiveness of the supervisory programs in broader terms than merely the achievements of the pupils. No single supervisory device was evaluated as such; rather, an attempt was made to measure the effectiveness of a supervisory program which was made as rich and varied as was possible under the conditions.

In the report of the Indiana experiment [1] on supervision, the following "other evidence of the value of supervision" is given:

> Besides favorably affecting instruction, supervision was the direct cause of other improvements less easily measured. Personal opinion has some value in this connection, and for that reason the judgments of different persons connected with the demonstrations are given.
>
> Both county superintendents expressed themselves as being convinced that great progress was made during the demonstration. Not only did they notice a difference in the achievement of the pupils in their studies, but they also observed a marked difference in their general attitude toward the school.
>
> The children themselves were appreciative. They enjoyed the tests that the supervisors gave, and were delighted with the extra books that were made available. They derived great pleasure and profit from the new study plan which gave them more free time for extra reading, drawing, and handwork.
>
> In one school the children became so much interested in improving their school that they made a survey of the building and grounds, called in the parents, made a report to them of their findings, led in the discussions which followed, and were instrumental in bringing about a resolution requesting the State Board of Health to examine their building with a view to condemning it for further use if it were found unfit. The example set by the pupils and parents in this particular school district was followed by the other school districts of the township, with the result that by the beginning of the second year of the demonstration all the school buildings in this township had been abandoned and in their place a modern, seven-room rural school building had been erected.
>
> To understand fully the great improvement which resulted from the demonstration, it is necessary to have in mind conditions as they were in the small rural schools in Johnson and La Grange counties before the demonstration began, and what they were at the end.
>
> The physical conditions were generally unfavorable to good school work. The one-teacher school buildings were typical box schoolhouses, built according to architectural ideas of half a century ago and of a construction that violated the principles of proper heating, lighting, ventilation, and sanitation. Heat was unevenly distributed; some of the children were sitting close to a hot, unjacketed stove, in excessive heat, and others were shivering near the windows. In many instances, the plastering on the walls and ceilings was loose. Most of the rooms needed cleaning and redecorating. In general, the furniture was poor and did not meet the hygienic needs of the children. In thirty-one one-room schools in one of

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[1] See pages 103-4 of this Yearbook.

the demonstration counties over one hundred children were sitting in seats so high that their feet dangled in the air. In the rooms there were often piles of rubbish, parts of old desks and parts of other old equipment, dilapidated globes and maps, torn dictionaries, books with the covers off and leaves gone, torn window shades that would not roll. There were frequently broken steps and locks, and yards full of sticks and stones. Quite frequently. there was a common drinking cup, a wash basin little used, and a common comb and towel, if towels were provided at all. The out-houses were in poor condition and the toilets were in many instances unscreened and unsightly. The playgrounds were small and in most places were lacking in equipment.

In almost all schools there was a general lack of instructional and supplementary books, paper, scissors, paste, clay, pencils, ink, construction paper, rulers, colored crayons, boxes, oak-tag pictures for charts and booklets—all of which contributed to a spirit of general apathy on the part of the children. They gave up too easily, worked too carelessly, and wasted time in not knowing what to do. To keep them out of actual mischief, they were often set to useless activities, such as laying toothpicks—activities that prevented idleness but contributed no educational stimulus. Very poor posture and lack of manners were commonly observed, and the pupils could not meet strangers except in a very timid and retiring way.

The teachers lacked ability to plan lessons and direct the study of the pupils. In instruction and in classroom management the results were mechanical. To illustrate: The pupils possessed the reading books required by law and these were in almost all instances too difficult for the grades in which they were used. The pupils, therefore, failed to do the work, consequently lost interest or formed the habit of laboriously spelling out the words. The reading was, therefore, without interpretation or expression. One of the county superintendents expressed the condition in the following words: "I fear that so long as I live I shall be able to hear that awful monotonous drone that was called reading."

While conditions in these schools did not become ideal as a result of the demonstration, marked changes took place. Schoolrooms were cleaned and redecorated, window shades, curtains, and ventilators were provided. There were no longer the dangling feet. Yards were cleaned; shrubs and flowers were planted in many places; and, almost without exception, waving flags attracted the attention of the arriving visitors. The children welcomed with delight the supervisors, and the attractive books and other helps which they brought with them. Mechanical methods gave way largely to vital methods of instruction. The children became interested in their work, and there was a freshness and pride in their eagerness to show what they could do. In the words of one of the county superintendents: "One would not believe them (the schools) the same places that they formerly were. The children now have happy expressions on their faces; they are interested in their work; they have formed habits of industry."

C. Measuring Changes in the Community

In his *Experiment with a Project Curriculum,* Collings [1] presents data as to the effects on life in the community produced by an experimental school conducted on a project basis as compared with the effects of a traditional school conducted along traditional lines. An extract from one section of his report will make clear the type of data Collings secured to show the changes produced by the four-year experimental program.

The particular improvements were 57.4 percent for the Experimental School and 6.6 percent for the Control Schools in number of homes taking daily newspapers;

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[1] Collings, Ellsworth, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923. 346 pp.

94 percent and 3.8 percent in number of homes taking farm journals; 59 percent and 5 percent in number of homes taking one or more county newspapers; 37.8 percent and 6.7 percent in number of homes taking two or more magazines; 50.8 percent and 3.3 percent in number of homes having a library; 41 percent and 6 percent in number of homes having screens to the doors and windows; 65 percent and 10 percent in number of homes having beautified surroundings; 84.9 percent and 24.8 percent in number of homes having ordinary labor-saving conveniences; 47.8 percent and 5 percent in number of homes having playgrounds and apparatus for children's games; and 34.5 percent and 5 percent in number of homes having musical instruments.—P. 280.

Similar data are given for various other aspects of community life, in practically every case indicating marked favorable changes in various aspects of life in the community in which the experimental school was located, with practically no changes in the conditions in the control school district.

Collings' technic suggests the possibility of developing methods by means of which changes which are produced in the school community by a supervisory program, other than mere growth in achievement as measured by standard tests, can be stated in quantitative terms. A typical section of his report which illustrates this point is as follows:

The particular changes in these attitudes were 29.8 percent for the Experimental School and 4.8 percent for the Control Schools in enrolment; 93.1 percent and 5.9 percent in pupils attending school every day; 92.0 percent and 6.0 percent in school tardiness; 25.5 percent and 7.0 percent in truancy; 56.5 percent and 15.0 percent in corporal punishment; 76.0 percent and 2.0 percent in pupils remaining in school throughout the entire time; 85.8 percent and 10.7 percent in pupils graduating finishing the eighth grade; and 85.8 percent and 8.4 percent in eighth-grade graduates entering high school.—P. 268.

D. Case Studies Which Show the Effectiveness of Supervision

Every successful supervisor can give interesting illustrations of how effective supervision has eliminated teaching difficulties. The following cases are typical: [1]

1. Disciplinary Troubles:

Case. An inexperienced teacher of music had some trouble with discipline in her school chorus. There were about 100 pupils, boys and girls, in the chorus. The teacher spent two or three minutes of each meeting in checking the roll. She also spent at least one minute after each song in choosing the next song.

Solution. The principal suggested that some reliable student mark the attendance at each meeting, and that a definite program of songs be planned before the meeting started. These suggestions were followed and practically all the disturbances stopped.

Results. When the pupils were kept busy, they did not think about getting into mischief.

2. Assisting the Teacher to Diagnose Individual Difficulties:

Case. The case is that of a 6A teacher whose teaching of arithmetic was very poor. She floundered about, not seeming to know just what her difficulty was nor how to remedy it.

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[1] Anderson, C. J.; Barr, A. S.; and Bush, M. G., *Visiting the Teacher at Work*, pp. 302 and 318. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1925.

Solution. The first thing done was to test the class, using an intelligence test, to ascertain whether the pupils were properly placed. Then an arithmetic test was given to obtain more information about the pupils' understanding of the fundamental operations. This showed that about 25 percent of the group were weak on zero combinations and fractions. Each case was diagnosed and the difficulty explained to the teacher. The teacher and principal worked together. Much drill suited to the needs of the class was given. A daily graph of the program of the class was kept on the board. Individual graphs were kept by the children. Interest soon waxed high.

Results. Of the class, 80 percent exceeded the score for their grade in the final test, 18 percent were average for their grade, and only 2 percent failed to attain it. Their interest never waned, and now, after the pupils have reached the junior high school, they are still keeping individual graphs, although not required to do so.

A Representative Case Study

Discussed at a Conference of Supervisors in Maryland

3. The Difficult Case of a New Normal School Graduate:

This case study has been selected because of its difficulty for me as a rural supervisor and I wish to invite candid criticism, both constructive and destructive.

The teacher with whom this case study deals is an inexperienced normal school graduate who came into our county with an unusual number of recommendations from many sources, giving promise of exceptionally good service. She has a very attractive appearance which apparently claims much of her attention.

When my first professional visit was made to her in a one-teacher rural school, she was teaching reading by an A B C method. As tactfully as I could I took her class, finished the period, and had a discussion of the lesson when the children were dismissed. She listened in an absent-minded way and, after I concluded, laughed lightly and said she had not had primary work in the Normal and did not know anything about it, but she would like to know how to get some paint for her building. A second visit was made within a very short time and upon this occasion she was mechanically asking questions from the text without any attempt at teaching. Our conference following the observation attempted to inspire confidence in her ability to use textbooks as a basis for class preparation and careful lesson planning. She listened courteously and again asked about some trivial repairs to the building. The third visit was equally unsatisfactory, and was concluded by her pleasant remark that she didn't know "anything about teaching reading."

My problems seemed to be to get her to realize that she was in any way responsible for using poor methods, and to arouse sufficient interest to make improvement possible. In trying to help her, I demonstrated, illustrated, discussed, encouraged imaginary good points; in fact, used up all of my ideas about giving help, and borrowed some, without getting any satisfaction whatever. As a last resort, it occurred to me to tell her of our Assistant State Superintendent's suggestion that we might be expected to report on certain case studies in the spring and to ask whether she would mind if I followed her improvement and reported upon it. She was interested at once. I emphasized the fact that she would have to work very carefully with me and I was unwilling to enter upon her case with this purpose in mind unless she was very willing to exert herself in improvement. She insisted that she wished to try; so an appointment was made for her to visit me and help work out the plans. This arrangement, whereby she was expected to walk four miles for supervisory assistance, was a test of her earnestness, and I visited her school at the closing hour, preventing her walk, when I was certain that she seriously considered the whole project.

In preparation for this visit I made three outlines to guide our thinking. As each was presented, she was encouraged to state very frankly her opinion of the correctness of my diagnosis and to add any point that she thought might fairly be added. I agreed to strike from the list any point which she thought would give an unfair impression. Her spirit was all that could be wished, so we read together the first outline, which follows.

Very Encouraging Factors

1. Preparation of the teacher
2. Pleasing personality
3. Community satisfaction with the teacher
4. Desire to improve the attractiveness of the classroom
5. Unquestioned respect and obedience from the children
6. Ability to secure faithful application to assignments
7. Interest in pupils
8. Willingness of the teacher to cooperate with the supervisor in systematic improvement.

With just sufficient discussion to show conclusively that a failure to show improvement could not well be attributed to justifiable reasons, we took the second outline:

Technic under Tentative Disapproval

1. A B C primary methods of teaching reading
2. Uncertain, variable attention to the child's ultimate good, due to a hazy conception of education
3. Initiative and judgment repressed or discouraged in pupils
4. Assignments not made with the proper motive
5. Study periods weak
6. Discipline autocratic
7. "Flat" recitations
8. Little attention given to the organization of pupils' thoughts or efforts
9. Lesson planning ignored, or very limited
10. Life settings and applications of textbook facts under-emphasized
11. Habits of study undirected
12. Questions largely factual
13. Fragmentary responses permitted.

A good deal of discussion was necessary to show exactly what was meant by some of these and also to show why they were disapproved. As she agreed to the fairness of each item it was checked off, and she added another:

14. Recitations confined to textbooks.

The third outline listed was as follows:

Suggestions for Improvement

1. Determine the purpose of education—View practices in the light of this purpose.
2. Gradually substitute easy, democratic classroom management for the dictatorial.
3. Develop initiative among your pupils.
4. Provide for the exercise of judgment by your pupils at all times.
5. Make some special preparation for organized class work and develop the pupils' abilities to organize their thinking.

6. Draw constantly upon pupils' experiences and interests for developing facts.
7. Locate exactly your pupils' difficulties, or weaknesses, and plan intelligently to overcome them.
8. Give not less than one and one-half hours daily to the consideration and planning of your work.
9. Require proper habits of response, behavior, study, and health.
10. Drill with interest and attention.
11. Unify your teaching.

Each suggestion was made quite clear in its intent and then a further suggestion was made that she select a few; one, two, or three; of the suggestions for intensive consideration and application. She selected three. It was further agreed that, when she felt that she was making these improvements habitual, she would ask help in taking up others. Only three were given her at this time. In about two weeks she wrote stating her readiness to begin another. I visited her school at this time and saw very commendable evidences of improvement. When her second request came for guidance, I gave her the entire list and we are regrouping these eleven suggestions under a few more comprehensive heads which are going to get us back to fundamental principles when she is ready.

In citing outcomes of this treatment, there are few positive improvements in classroom practices which I feel are firmly fixed. The best results, as I see them, are possibilities for future improvement as indicated by her awakened interest in her profession, her desire to improve, and her ability to receive help when it is made sufficiently simple. She cannot receive a suggestion; she cannot profit by a demonstration; nor can she transfer an idea from one grade to another without minute assistance. Point out her faulty practice, demonstrate a correction of it, follow with another discussion of the correct and incorrect methods, and show how to adjust this to her class, and she will use the method well. This same process must be gone through with in order to transfer the same, or a similar, method to another grade. With years, perhaps, of patient supervision she can become a valuable teacher.

Summary of studies evaluating supervision in terms of observed changes in the teaching or learning situation and in the community—Such statements as those that have been given constitute legitimate evidence as to the value of supervision. Similar statements are found in numerous annual reports of superintendents and other sources of information pertaining to supervision. While measured changes are undoubtedly of greater value in determining the effectiveness of supervision, the "observable" changes which cannot be measured precisely are of great value and importance as a means of evaluating the work of supervisors.

IV. Evaluation of Supervision in Terms of Judgments of Individuals

A large body of information is available concerning the judgments of individuals as to the value of supervision and of various supervisory practices. These data have been compiled from questionnaires and other forms of inquiry blanks which have been submitted to teachers, administrators, supervisors, and educational specialists. Rating charts of various kinds have been prepared by means of which superintendents may attempt to evaluate the supervisory work in city school systems. The four studies summarized below are illustrative.

A. What Supervised Rural Teachers Think of Supervision

At the close of the supervisory program in Oakland County[1] the supervised teachers were sent the following letter, on which their answers are summarized:

Lansing, Michigan,
February 20, 1926.

Dear Teacher:

The Rural Education Committee of the Michigan Education Association is making an investigation of the value of supervision of instruction in rural schools. Oakland County now has such supervision. It seems to us that, since the teacher is the most important factor in the success of any school under any system of organization, one of the most important tasks of this investigation is to find out whether the teachers find supervision helpful in their work.

Will you not, therefore, cooperate with the committee in making this investigation just as thorough and just as reliable as possible? It will be a real service to the committee, to the State Department of Education, and to the teaching profession, if you will write your answers to the following questions. We assure you that your reply will be kept confidential and can in no way affect your standing as a teacher or your position. We wish to have your honest opinion, whether favorable or unfavorable. In using the results of this questionnaire, we shall say that, of total number of teachers reporting, such number were favorable and such number were unfavorable. Neither names of teachers nor schools will be used.

	Yes	*No*
1. Do you like to teach with supervision better than you did without it?	51	3
2. Do you think that supervision work helps you to do better teaching?	56	4
3. Do you think that the attendance at zone meetings for one year is equivalent in professional value to a six weeks' summer school?	47	11
4. Do you think that your pupils learn more with supervision than they did without it?	54	3
5. Do your pupils have a greater interest in school with supervision than without it?	55	3
6. Do you think that your pupils have learned any valuable lessons in social attitudes, citizenship, or conduct from the work of the helping teachers?	53	4
7. Has your schoolhouse, furniture, or playground equipment been improved as a direct result of the supervisory program?	36	24
8. Has your teaching equipment such as maps, library books, textbooks, charts, seat work, supplies, etc., been improved or increased because of supervision?	48	9
9. Have the people of your district shown a greater interest in school since supervision has been established?	45	10
10. In your opinion as a citizen of the county, do you think that supervision is worth as much as it costs?	52	6

The teachers were overwhelmingly in favor of the supervisory program carried out in Oakland County, the ratio being 14 to 1. While the manner in which the questions were given in the letter undoubtedly affected to some extent the replies of the teachers, the results given above agree closely with those of similar studies, in which a different type of blank was used.

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[1] Hoppes, W. C., et al., "The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County *Michigan Education Association Bulletin No. 7,* Lansing, Mich., June, 1926, p. 19.

In addition to answering the questions in the letter, the teachers were asked to write on the back of the sheet:

> In addition to your answers to these questions, will you not write on the back of this sheet a FULL, FRANK, and HONEST opinion of just what supervisory work has meant (1) to you as a teacher; (2) to your pupils; (3) to the people of your community; and will you (4) particularly state how the supervisory work affected the learning of geography, history, writing, and other subjects that were not especially emphasized at zone meetings?

The opinions of the teachers vary widely as to the effectiveness of the program.

> One of the four who are opposed to supervision does not see any benefit whatever in the program and condemns it in every respect; at the other extreme, five or six teachers declare that they would not again undertake to teach a rural school without supervision.

The objections which teachers make to supervision are summarized in the following statements:

> The supervisors were theoretical and impractical.
> The supervisors emphasized non-essentials.
> The children dislike the extra work which the supervisor has them do, yet regard her visit as a play time.
> Pupils dreaded the visit of the supervisor.
> Pupils are glad to see the supervisor come because they do not have to work.
> The experience of the older teachers was not respected.
> The teacher himself is more experienced and more competent than the supervisor.
> The professional meetings are tiresome and do not help the teacher very much.
> It makes the teacher work.
> The people think it a waste of time.
> Supervision is an experiment.

In spite of these very pointed objections to supervision, two of the four teachers who make them are willing to say some good things about it.

> Supervision would be helpful to a beginning teacher.
> The teacher would be just as willing to teach with supervision as without it.
> The supervisor brings something new for the children to do.
> The children learn more with supervision than they do without it.
> School equipment has been increased.

It may be fairly said, therefore, that those who in general do not endorse supervision do not nevertheless unqualifiedly oppose it.

What answer do the fifty-six teachers make to the objections of the four? Fifty-two wrote at length expressing their opinions; only four failed to comment upon their reasons for approving the supervisory work.

Do these teachers like supervision? Here is their own testimony:

> As a rural teacher having had supervision for two years, I want to testify that the helping teacher means everything to me. I believe that I should not try again without a great deal more training to teach in a one-room school without a helping

> teacher. I deeply regret that I could not have had supervision during the first years of my teaching experience. I would be a much stronger teacher and the pupils whom I have sent out would be stronger men and women.
>
> In a supervisor we have someone to help us in our troubles, someone who appreciates our work, and someone who gives us new ideas. I would not want to teach where they did not have supervisors.
>
> Supervision has meant much to me. This is my second year of teaching and if it had not been for supervision I never could have accomplished as much as I have. Ever since I started teaching I have had supervision. I found this very helpful the first part of my first year. I find that the friendly help and criticism is invaluable to me and I would not want to teach without it.

Many favorable comments of a similar kind are given in the report of the experiment.

B. An Evaluation of General and Special Supervision

General and special supervision may be evaluated in terms of the extent to which teachers really recognize its contribution to their work. In a questionnaire prepared by Nutt,[1] teachers were first asked to state the helpful things that had been done in connection with their teaching by general or special supervisors. They were then asked to state the things that had been done which had not been helpful. Replies to the questionnaire were received from 231 teachers, most of whom had taught more than two years under supervision. The data are presented by Nutt under two large divisions, one relating to general supervisors and one relating to special supervisors.

Counting one point for each mention of the thirty-three kinds of helps reported, the total score for helpful items in general supervision was 624 points. Only 14 specific points from the questionnaires could be counted against general supervision, leaving a "valid" score of 610 points in favor of general supervision. Of the total number of helps listed by teachers, 220 were given for "items that are definitely connected with the specific problems of teaching;" the general spirit and attitude of the supervisor scored 213 points; the things that contribute an indirect attack on teaching problems, such as giving outlines and courses of study, scored 134 points. This evidence is clearly favorable for general supervision.

The results for special supervision were not as favorable. The number of points counted as favorable was only 352 as against the 624 points for general supervision. The score against special supervision was 235 points in contrast to the 14 points against general supervision. This gives a "valid" score of only 117 points for special supervision. The list of helps reported by teachers was quite similar to the list of helps for general supervision. The points against special supervision were grouped under three headings:

1. Improper amount of work and poor adaptation of work to pupils.
2. Poor organization and administration of the special supervisor's programs of work.
3. Inefficient technic in supervision.

Nutt concludes that "general supervision is efficient enough to warrant its continuance and further development. How efficient such supervision is as compared with the degree of efficiency possible and desirable is not established by these data. . . . The conclusion seems valid that special supervision has not as yet made its helpfulness so much outweigh its shortcomings as to make a profound impression upon teachers." The testimony in favor of its helpfulness indicates the validity of its function and suggests the real necessity for its development.

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[1] Nutt, H. W., *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*, p. 238. Richmond, Va., Johnson Publishing Company, 1928.

C. The Evaluation of Current Practices in Supervision by Teachers and Specialists

In a study of current practices in supervision in towns of from 10,000 to 20,000 in population, Melby [1] secured data as to the extent to which various supervisory practices were employed in these schools. In his report, Melby also gives data as to the evaluation of these practices by both the teachers and educational specialists. This information is summarized in Table 33.

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[1] Melby, E. O., *Organization and Administration of Supervision.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Company, 1929. 158 pp.

TABLE 33.—COMPARISON OF THE JUDGMENTS OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS AND EDUCATIONAL SPECIALISTS CONCERNING THE EXTENT OF USE AND VALUE OF CERTAIN SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES [1]

Supervisory Activities and Devices	Teachers' Judgments		Specialists' Judgments
	Much used	Of great value	Of great value
1	2	3	4
I. Fact-finding activities and devices:			
A. Classroom visitation:			
1. Announced visits (i. e., teachers are informed they will be visited at definite time)	7	16	42
2. Unannounced visits (teachers not informed of visits)	58	32	44
3. Long visits (whole period or greater part of period)	15	26	60
4. Short visits (small part of period)	35	31	2
B. Tests and measurements:			
1. Standard achievement tests	37	52	76
2. Intelligence tests	37	55	52
3. Informal tests (prepared by teachers)	49	55	42
4. Diagnostic tests	22	46	90
C. Teachers' reports:			
1. Time allotment reports	29	24	10
2. Reporting methods used	14	20	14
3. Reports of objectives of lessons	21	28	38
4. Materials used	19	21	14
5. Reports of lesson plans	51	32	16
II. Fact presentation activities and devices:			
A. Teachers' meetings for announcements (Do not confuse with III–A)	26	17	4
B. Bulletins:			
1. Mimeographed	59	59	46
2. Printed	12	38	30
3. Bulletin boards	19	42	34
4. Daily or weekly letters	11	21	30
5. Graphs of test results	23	45	70
III. Activities and devices for stimulating growth and improvement:			
A. Teachers' meetings:			
1. General (including entire faculty)	11	17	32
2. Meetings of teachers of certain subjects	28	67	81
3. Meetings of teachers of certain grades	37	71	81
4. Committees for special studies	13	43	88

[1] Summarized from replies of 377 elementary school teachers and 56 specialists in educational administration and supervision. The figures in Cols. 2, 3, and 4 are percents of the total number of teachers and of specialists replying.

TABLE 33.—COMPARISON OF THE JUDGMENTS OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS AND EDUCATIONAL SPECIALISTS CONCERNING THE EXTENT OF USE AND VALUE OF CERTAIN SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES—(Continued)

Supervisory Activities and Devices	Teachers' Judgments		Specialists' Judgments
	Much used	Of great value	Of great value
1	2	3	4
B. Demonstration teaching:			
1. Of proposed methods	12	64	76
2. For training new teachers	7	45	80
3. Of ways of using materials	5	45	38
C. Intervisitation:			
1. In your own building	1	16	44
2. In other buildings	5	34	46
3. In other school systems	8	64	56
D. Exhibits:			
1. Of work done by certain methods	16	37	24
2. Of work done in certain subjects	22	38	18
E. Lectures and reports:			
1. By principal	7	25	22
2. By supervisor	11	40	32
3. By outsiders	11	34	12
4. By teachers	4	16	38
F. Encourage professional reading:			
1. Require reading of teachers	9	27	6
2. Organize reading circles	1	16	14
3. Ask teachers to report reading	1	9	26
4. Maintain professional library in building	23	65	68
5. Maintain magazine shelf in building	27	65	72
G. Conferences with individual teachers:			
1. Following visitation	20	67	82
2. For general stimulation	14	50	52
H. Experimentation:			
1. In method	17	37	86
2. In organization	10	33	84
I. Assist teachers to evaluate their own work:			
1. By rating scales	20	32	26
2. By type lessons	8	40	52
3. By lists of objectives	20	41	48
IV. Activities and devices in the training of teachers and improvement of instruction:			
A. Maintain office hours when teachers can get help	21	55	68
B. Cooperative studies by groups of teachers:			
1. Course-of-study making	11	31	80
2. Development of methods	9	40	75
3. Selection of materials of instruction	....	....	58
a. Texts	12	45	64
b. Equipment	9	45	60
c. Drill materials	10	41	54
4. Adapting instruction to individual needs	25	48	76
C. Individual studies by teachers:			
1. Investigation of special problems for groups	33	48	64
2. Study of teacher's own specific problems	27	65	82
D. Institutional training:			
1. University or college courses	15	55	74
2. Extension courses	16	48	36
3. Summer school courses	26	60	76
4. Saturday morning or after-school classes	10	14	30
V. Procedures for evaluating the results of supervision:			
A. By changes in pupils:			
1. As measured by standard tests	33	42	66
2. Observed improvement in pupil attitudes	31	54	58
B. By changes in the teacher or her teaching:			
1. Teacher's attitude toward supervision	26	46	48
2. Observed changes in teacher's methods	23	45	36

The outline of supervisory activities prepared by Melby is based on an analysis of numerous studies that have been made concerning the types of activities and functions of supervisory officers. In the second column of Table 33, the judgments of 377 elementary school teachers are summarized as to the extent to which the various practices are "much used" in their school systems. In the third column are summarized their judgments as to the value of these practices in terms of the percent of the whole group of teachers who rate each of the practices as of "great value." In the last column are given the percents of a group of 56 specialists in educational administration and supervision who rate each of the practices as "of great value."

A comparison of the data in the three columns shows that in some cases there is a close agreement between the stress placed on a particular supervisory practice in the schools and its evaluation by teachers and educational specialists. For example, Item I-A-2, unannounced visits, is reported as "much used" by 58 percent of the teachers and is judged to be "of great value" by 32 percent of the teachers and 44 percent of the educational specialists. Item II-B-1, mimeographed bulletins, is reported "much used" by 59 percent of the teachers and as "of great value" by 59 percent of the teachers and 46 percent of the specialists. Other "much used" items concerning which there is considerable agreement as to value by both teachers and specialists are I-B-3, informal tests; III-A-3, meetings of teachers of certain grades; V-A-1, evaluating supervision by changes in pupils' achievements; and V-A-2, evaluating results of supervision by observed improvement of pupils' attitudes.

In Table 33, there are several practices which are reported by a fairly large percent of the teachers as "much used" which are rated as of "great value" by few teachers and specialists. Two illustrations of this are Item I-A-4, short visits by supervisors, and Item I-C-5, reports of lesson plans and plan books.

The most significant fact in Table 33 is the extent to which current practice is not in harmony with the judgment of the value of these practices by both teachers and specialists. For example, specialists believe that long periods—whole periods or greater parts of periods—should be used in classroom visitations. This is not now the "much used" practice; nor do the teachers rate this practice as of great value, as do the specialists. Tests and measurements of all kinds are rated as of greater value by larger percents of both teachers and specialists than the percents who indicate that they are now "much used." This is also true of the use of bulletins of all kinds. Demonstration teaching is apparently used very little in the schools, whereas it is rated as of "great value" by a very large percent of both teachers and specialists. This is also true of committee work, intervisitation, conferences with individual teachers, experimentation, cooperative studies by groups of teachers, individual studies by teachers, and various kinds of institutional training, supervisory procedures which teachers and specialists in most cases rate as of "great value" but which apparently are little used in present practice in towns of from 10,000 to 20,000.

Melby's data clearly show the need of a careful evaluation in many school systems of current supervisory practices. Melby's check list can be used as the basis for such an investigation. In any school system, teachers can be asked to evaluate the items in the check list. The judgments of experts given in Table 33 can be used to discover the types of supervisory practices which are judged by them to be of great value. Modifications in practice can be made on the basis of the combined judgments of supervisory officers, teachers, and specialists.

Practically no evidence exists as to the value of specific supervisory practices as such, except as they are a part of the whole supervisory program that is in use in a particular situation. It will undoubtedly be very difficult to determine the value of specific practices, since in any situation a large number of factors will influence the teacher. The influence of any single factor will be buried in the complex situation. The wisest procedure undoubtedly will be for supervisors to use the technics that appear most likely to produce the desired results, checking their choices against such lists as those of Melby or others that may become available at some future time.[1]

D. Questionnaire Sent to Each Elementary Teacher in Oakland, California, to Secure Reactions to Local Supervisory Procedures[2]

On January 8, 1929, the superintendent of schools of Oakland, Calif., sent to each elementary teacher in Oakland a questionnaire on supervision. It was intended to secure reactions of teachers to local supervisory procedures.

Part I of the questionnaire listed, under such headings as "Faculty Meetings," "Supervisors' Meetings," "Principals' Classroom Visits," and "Supervisors' Classroom Visits," the various ways in which each of these activities is carried on. The teacher was asked to check under each activity the particular way that he preferred to have it carried on. Practically all the elementary teachers returned the questionnaires checked in accordance with their preferences.

Part II of the questionnaire called for a frank criticism of existing practice. Reply to Part II was made optional. About one-third of the elementary teachers responded with frank and helpful criticism.

According to the superintendent of the Oakland schools, his purpose in asking for this help from teachers was:

1. To find out to what extent that which principals and supervisors are trying to do is understood and appreciated by teachers.
2. To get suggestions from teachers for the improvement of local supervisory procedures.
3. To "make good" on the contention that supervision is a cooperative procedure in the improvement of which teachers as well as supervisors must play a part.

The results of the questionnaire were reported back to the local teachers for the purpose of (1) letting them know that their criticism and suggestions had been given careful consideration by superintendents, supervisors, and principals, and (2) assuring them that they would be taken into account in the planning of the supervisory program. Also, it put the suggestions in such form that they were readily usable by principals and supervisors.

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[1] See study made by Maycie Southall and reported in Chapter IV of this Yearbook, pp. 65 to 85.

[2] *The Evaluation of Supervision*, Supplement to Superintendent's Bulletin, Vol. IX, No. 37, May 9, 1929. Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, Calif.

See also: *Organization of Administration and Supervision of the Oakland Public Schools*, Superintendent's Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 14, November 7, 1929. Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, Calif.

In this report, only those replies which had to do with the following supervisory activities are set forth:

1. Faculty meetings
2. Supervisors' meetings
3. Principals' classroom visitation
4. Supervisors' classroom visitation.

1. Faculty Meetings:

a. Objectives of supervisory group:

1). To have rather frequent meetings of small groups interested in a specific classroom problem.

2). To conduct meetings by conference method rather than by lecture method.

b. Teachers' reactions:

Fifty-six percent favor having attendance limited to teachers of a single cycle of grades, or to a group of teachers working on problems chosen by them. When to this is added the fact that 49 percent favor having the meetings center around a problem of interest to a single cycle, it seems evident that a considerable group are in harmony with the supervisors' and principals' attempt to limit the subject of meetings to rather specific problems of interest to a small group.

Oakland elementary teachers do not favor more frequent meetings, however, for only 27 percent were in favor of having them oftener than once a month. This may possibly be explained by the fact that they have not had enough experience with the smaller group meeting on specific classroom problems to appreciate fully its value. Their attitude may be this: "Since we must have meetings, let's have those that we do have concern themselves with specific classroom problems." This is substantiated by the criticism in Part II in which, out of 198 teachers, the following criticisms were made:[1]

Meetings too long	10
Meetings poorly planned	40
Meetings called too often	21
Meetings of little value professionally because of too much administrative detail	16
Meetings should be more helpful on professional problems	26
Total number offering these criticisms	113

The above criticisms constituted 57 percent of all those offered. It is possible that if the above features should be corrected the teachers would favor more frequent meetings.

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[1] In tabulating the results of the questionnaire sent to all elementary teachers in Oakland, this procedure was followed: In Part I the results of the first 270 returns were tabulated and the percentage of this number who preferred the various supervisory procedures under each of the headings listed was computed. Thinking that possibly this gave a random sampling, and that further tabulation might not change the percentage, the statisticians sampled the remaining 429 questionnaires, selecting 75 which they added to the 270, securing a total of 345, and computed the percentage of this number which preferred each procedure. The resulting percentages differed from those computed on the basis of the original 270 by an average of less than one percent (.8797 percent). Hence it was agreed that 345 represented a sufficient sampling. In the case of Part II of the questionnaire, all the returns were used (152, 190, 190, 198). These were classified according to the nature of the criticism.

Concerning method of conducting meetings, 66 percent of the teachers favored "talks by outside speakers, principals, or supervisors," and only 33 percent "reports by teachers" and "study group led by teacher." In view of the fact that 28 of 198 criticisms were directed at securing conference procedure and an additional 34 wanted smaller groups, which implies providing opportunity for discussion, it is likely that the 66 percent who voted for talks by outside speakers, principals, or supervisors, rather than discussion groups led by teachers, did so for the following reasons:

1). They prefer leadership of others than teachers in their meetings.
2). The questionnaire was faulty in not giving them an opportunity to vote for discussion groups led by outside speakers, principals, and supervisors.

It seems reasonable, then, to assume that this vote of 66 percent for "talks" is not to be interpreted as in conflict with the desire of supervisory officers to conduct meetings on a discussion or conference basis.

In general, then, it may be said that the teachers are in accord with the desire of principals to have meetings for small groups on specific and limited classroom problems, and to have the conference procedure prevail as the accepted technic.

An analysis of the 198 criticisms of existing practice indicates that teachers are keenly aware of the principal's failure to carefully plan his meetings to eliminate consideration of administrative detail, to employ discussion technic, and to limit discussion to concrete classroom problems. Possibly, when these things are corrected, they will be willing to change their vote concerning the frequency of meetings.

2. Supervisors' Meetings:

a. The objectives set up by the supervisory group were essentially the same as those for principals' faculty meetings; namely, smaller groups on conference basis and concerned with rather specific and limited classroom problems.

b. Teachers' reactions:

Approximately 56 percent of the teachers favored meetings of teachers concerned with a specific teaching problem rather than all the teachers of one cycle or one grade. Sixty-five percent of the teachers favor a conference led by the supervisor or a talk by the supervisor followed by a period for asking questions. Only 14 percent wanted such a talk without a discussion period. Approximately 20 percent favored demonstration meetings. Since these are, as practiced in Oakland, invariably followed by discussion led by the supervisor, this may be considered as additional evidence of the desire to have meetings dealing with specific teaching problems, concretely presented, and which the teachers have an opportunity to discuss. In general, they feel that there are too many meetings. This may, as in the case of faculty meetings, be due in part to the fact that present meetings do not seem worthwhile, and in asking for fewer meetings they may really be asking only for fewer meetings of the present kind. The vote was 3 to 1 in favor of five meetings or less per semester.

Their criticism of existing practice may be classified as follows:

Adverse—

Fewer meetings	19
Do not read bulletins	13
Meetings seem "dead"	3
Meetings are a re-hash of old ideas	19
	54

Constructive—		
Use conference procedure	38	
Have smaller groups	11	
Have more demonstrations	34	
Have more pointed discussion of problems—be more definite and concrete	35	
	—	118
Commendatory—		
Meetings "fine," "satisfactory," etc.	18	
	—	18
		190

In general, then, the teachers are in accord with the supervisors' proposals to:

1). Have smaller groups
2). Employ discussion method
3). Employ demonstration by teacher as a basis for discussion.

They still feel, however, that:

1). There are too many meetings.
2). Meetings do not provide sufficient opportunity for discussion.
3). Topics treated are too general and not presented with sufficient definiteness and concreteness.

3. Principals' Visits:

a. Objectives of supervisory group—that these visits be in accordance with some plan, either by grade or subject, to get first-hand knowledge of classroom procedure so that the principal may be of help to the teacher:

1). In planning his work
2). In putting plans into operation
3). In evaluating his own work.

The data thus collected should serve as a basis for work with individual teachers or with small groups. In other words, these data should result in a study of the classroom problem by teacher and principal under the leadership of the latter.

b. Teachers' reactions:

Fifty-seven percent want the principal to visit classroom at the invitation of the teacher to see good work or to help in teaching problems. Forty-four percent desire him to come without notice.[1] Only eight percent want him to come according to a pre-arranged schedule.

This willingness to have the principal drop in any time is emphasized still further under the heading of "frequency of visit," where approximately 60 percent of the teachers indicate that they prefer to have him come at irregular intervals, rather than at stated intervals. Of the 152 who offered criticisms, 53 emphasize the need for the principal knowing more about the teacher's work. Almost half of these (24) state specifically that they'd like "longer visits" or "more frequent visits."

Concerning the nature of the visit, there is a very definite desire to avoid having the principal sit as an outsider, observing what goes on. Eighty-five percent favor having him either "teach" (16%) or "talk to the class" (17%) or "participate in the work of the class" (50%) or even "test class" (2%). Only 22 percent favor having principal "observe the class work from the back of the room." Admitted that it is important to avoid having an inspectorial relationship, couldn't it be avoided in some other way than by the principal interfering with the work which the teacher is carrying on? It probably means that the principals have not yet succeeded in getting teachers to think of them as fellow students of classroom problems and helpers in the solution of problems, and that, although teachers don't relish having their work interrupted, they prefer this to having him quietly observe what is going on.

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[1] These percentages total over 100, due to the fact that a number of those who voted to have him come "at teacher's invitation" also voted to have him come "without notice."

Criticisms of existing practices (152 in number) group themselves as follows:

1). Principal Should Know More about the Teacher's Work:		
a). Should have closer acquaintance with teacher's work	15	
b). Should make longer and more frequent visits	24	
c). Should become acquainted with children	5	
d). Should teach the class (not as in the case of the supervisor to demonstrate the proper method, but so that he'll be more sympathetic in his criticism)	9	
	—	53
2). Principal Should Be More Helpful in His Criticism:		
a). It should be less critical and inspectorial—more encouraging	23	
b). It should be "more constructive"	12	
c). He should "make *some* comment" after a visit and not "leave teacher in the dark"	11	
d). He should not interrupt class work or make his comments in the presence of the class	12	
	—	58
3). Visits Are Helpful	19	
4). Miscellaneous Criticism	22	
	—	41
Total		152

In general, it may be said that the teachers have not learned through experience to appreciate what the principal can do by systematic work to help the teacher:

1). In planning work
2). In carrying out the plan
3). In evaluating his work.

There is evidence that teachers like the principals personally and that they appreciate a friendly social visit, but they shy away from anything more businesslike in nature. A minority indicate through their criticisms that there is still too much inspection and destructive criticism and not enough real supervision.

4. Supervisors' Visits to Classrooms:

a. Objectives of supervisory group—in general, these are the same as those set down for principals; namely, that the supervisor should through his visits get first-hand knowledge as the basis on which he may help the teacher to:

1). Plan his work
2). Put the plan into effect
3). Evaluate his own efforts—as in the case of the principal and teacher it should result in a study by the teacher of his own problem under the leadership of the supervisor.

b. Teacher's reactions:

Sixty-three percent of the teachers indicate that they approve of scheduled visits. This preference may be due to several causes:

1). The teacher may realize that no other plan is administratively feasible in Oakland at the present time.
2). He may prefer to know when the supervisor is coming so that he can "get set" for the visit.

The latter is in sharp contrast to his attitude toward the principal's visitation. In the case of the principal, as many as 44 percent preferred to have him visit "without previous notice" and as many as 58 percent "at irregular intervals."

There is another marked contrast in the matter of what the supervisor should do when he visits. Eighty-two percent of the teachers prefer to have him teach. The reasons given are two, of which the first greatly outnumbers the second.

1). Teachers want supervisors to show them how it is done—to give model lessons so that the teacher may know better what the supervisor requires.
2). Also they want them to teach so that they will understand better the situation which the teacher faces.

This is in marked contrast to the situation represented by principal and teacher in two ways:

1). The relatively very much greater emphasis upon teaching as a useful activity in the case of supervisors (81 percent as compared with 16 percent in the case of the principal).
2. The reason for wanting principals was almost entirely so that they might be more sympathetic in their criticism.

In the case of the supervisor, this reason is greatly outweighed by the other; namely, so that he might show the teacher how to work more effectively. The desire that the supervisor teach is, however, very marked. One might ask, then, how is he to get first-hand knowledge of the teacher to serve as a basis for helping the teacher:

a). To develop his own plan of work
b). To execute his plan
c). To evaluate his work.

Obviously a correction in the teacher's point of view and the supervisor's technic is needed at this point.

As to the length of each visit, 73 percent of the teachers preferred visits of 20 minutes or less—and as to frequency, 77 percent preferred two visits per term or less. In some of these cases it may be that the teachers were moved quite as much by what they deemed to be possible and practical in view of the demands made on the supervisor's time as by a desire to have fewer or shorter visits. The data are of little value in throwing light on this point.

Their criticisms (190 in number) of supervisors may be classified as follows:

1). Supervisors should teach more (reason: to give teachers an idea of what is wanted; only five indicate that they want it so that supervisor will better understand their problem and be less critical)	92
2). Encourage—don't discourage—the teacher	22
3). Be concrete—deal with teacher's problems	19

4). Visit oftener and for longer periods	5
5). Visit less often and for shorter periods	3
6). Visit without principal	7
7). Do not hold conference during class period	5
8). Talk over the lesson with us	4
9). Miscellaneous—critical	18
10). Visits are helpful	15
Total	190

In general, then, it may be said that the supervisor's function as a teacher of teachers; i. e., one who, on the basis of what he has learned of the teacher's work through observation, helps the teacher to:

1). Develop his own plan of work
2). Put his plans into effect
3). Evaluate his own work

is not generally understood by the teacher. Otherwise, why this insistence that the supervisor teach? The teacher should welcome any procedure whereby he and the supervisor might quickly discover just where help is needed so that the supervisor might be of greatest assistance in rendering this help.

Supervisors and principals are anxious to avail themselves of these suggestions to improve their work as "teachers of teachers."

Summary of studies evaluating supervision in terms of judgments of individuals—Teachers strongly indorse supervision, although they do not favor certain supervisory practices. The evidence justifies the conclusion that some modifications are desirable in the procedures of special supervision. Many practices that are rated as of "great value" by teachers and educational specialists are found to be little used in current practice in cities of from 10,000 to 20,000 population. Other practices rated by few teachers and specialists as of "much value" are found to be "much used" in current practice.

The data that have been presented in this chapter show that supervision when measured from many different angles has been of demonstrated value.

1. The studies of growth in pupil achievement that are reported show uniformly that the growth is greater in supervised schools than in unsupervised schools. In each case, supervision is defined as personal supervision carried on by an expert. It is assumed in all cases that the supervisor carried on his work with an adequate degree of skill. The limitations of tests as means of measuring the outcomes of instruction should be considered in interpreting and evaluating these studies.

2. It is apparent that changes in teaching procedures can be secured as a result of a supervisory program. It is very difficult to measure these changes. No controlled experiments are available which show the relative effectiveness of the various possible supervisory devices. The supervisor is faced with the problem not only of securing changes in teaching but also of securing changes that are desirable. Growth means change, but not all change is growth.

3. There is much evidence of the observed changes that take place in teaching situations as a result of supervision. This evidence is found in reports of

case studies, in official reports of administrative and supervisory officers, and in many other sources. This information suggests that one of the aspects of supervision that must be considered in evaluating it is its influence in particular specific situations and with particular individuals. The direct results of the personal contacts of supervisor and teacher undoubtedly are of great significance and importance. To ignore this aspect of supervision in attempting to evaluate it would be to overlook the importance of the human element as a factor in the educational situation, and the direct influence of the personal contacts between the supervisor and teacher, the stimulation, inspiration, and guidance of the expert, which are at present unmeasurable.

4. The data that have been presented show that teachers in general welcome and appreciate the assistance and guidance of the supervisor. However, studies show that changes in the technics and activities of special supervisors may be desirable, since apparently there is considerable criticism in certain sections of the country of the work of special supervisors. There is need of experimental studies of the relative value of various types of supervisory procedures. Apparently, many practices judged to be of little value by teachers and experts are widely used at the present time. Likewise, many practices judged to be of "much value" by teachers and experts are not used as widely and as much as the judgments of these individuals would warrant.

Throughout the discussions in the reports of studies here reviewed, it is evident that the supervisors have been attempting to recognize differences between teachers. The results of the experimental study of teaching have been brought to the attention of teachers and the data have been interpreted in the light of sound principles of education. Successful procedures have been demonstrated. Special consideration has been given to the needs of new and experienced teachers. Teachers and supervisors have cooperated in carrying out the details of the program of supervision. Undoubtedly, there have been great differences in the skill with which the supervisors have attacked their problems. However, an analysis of the investigations shows that an earnest effort has been made in all cases to "provide an environment in which men and women of high professional ideals may live a vigorous, intelligent, creative life."

The studies that have been presented are exceedingly helpful and illustrative of the type of research that is needed to measure accurately the value of supervision. The technics of measurement and analysis must be refined and evaluated. New measuring devices must be invented to measure some of the more intangible outcomes of supervision, such as changed attitudes of the teachers, growth in professional spirit, ability to inspire pupils, and increased personal satisfaction resulting from knowledge that a better type of instruction is present in the classroom.

CHAPTER VII

SUGGESTED EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES IN MEASURING SUPERVISION

IN THE PRECEDING chapter the available evidence as to the value of supervision was analyzed in detail. The technics used were discussed and evaluated. This chapter will describe other suggested methods, as yet not attempted, but apparently quite feasible, by which the effectiveness of supervision can be evaluated. Certain factors, such as the supervisor's philosophy of the job and the skill with which he applies his philosophy, are analyzed from the point of view of their possible effect on the organization and outcomes of experimental studies of the value of supervision. While the evidence presented in the preceding chapter was overwhelmingly in favor of supervision, it seems reasonable that even better results could have been secured in some cases if the supervisory activities had been performed with a different supervisory philosophy in mind or had the supervisory activities been performed more skillfully.

There is little evidence available as to the value of specific supervisory devices, such as teachers' meetings, conferences, and check lists. The evaluation of such devices will be a most difficult task, since it will be almost impossible to isolate the effects of a single device in the numerous factors in the total educational situation which influence the work of the teacher; however, such experimental investigations should be undertaken, since their significance is obvious.

The suggested experimental studies described in this chapter are grouped under the following heads:

1. Consideration of the supervisor's philosophy of the job and of his skill.
2. Use of teacher-rating blanks to measure improvement in teaching.
3. Measuring changes in teaching method and skill.
4. Measuring changes in levels of teaching.
5. Elimination of errors in teaching procedures.
6. Elimination of teachers' difficulties.
7. Evaluation of supervision through semi-objective rating devices.
8. Improvement in the character of the materials of instruction.
9. Objective analysis of activities in the classroom.
10. Objective analysis of characteristics of pupil behavior as indices of the quality of instruction.
11. Miscellaneous technics.

1. Consideration of the Supervisor's Philosophy of the Job and of His Skill

Any attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of supervision experimentally must begin with a clear statement as to just what aspect of supervision is to be evaluated, so that conditions may be controlled and so that the experimenter may know with greater exactness just what is being appraised. Two important factors that must be considered in this connection are the skill of the supervisor and the educational philosophy which guides his procedures. Obviously, supervisors differ widely in their skill in performing their various functions, because of such factors as lack of experience, differences in training, differences in ability to work with teachers, and differences in ability to grapple with the problems of organization. There is no statistical evidence as to the extent to which these variations in skill in supervision exist, but they are undoubtedly large. In the studies analyzed in the preceding chapter it was assumed in every case that the supervisory activities were performed with satisfactory skill, an assumption which in some cases at least may have been invalid.

Just as there are wide differences in the general methods of teaching due to differences in the educational philosophy of individuals, there exist differences in the methods of approach used by various supervisors in attacking the problems involved in their work. These differences in methods or basic theories of supervision are undoubtedly due to the philosophy of the job which the supervisor has consciously or unconsciously adopted or formulated. Many a supervisor who insists upon a maximum of pupil initiative and self-directed activity in the classroom uses methods in his supervisory contacts with the teachers which smack strongly of extreme autocracy. Other supervisors are definitely attempting to formulate supervisory procedures in accordance with accepted democratic principles, similar to those which are now almost universally accepted, at least in theory, as the basis for progressive teaching procedures in the classroom. To what extent this factor was considered in the studies that have been made is not entirely clear.

Brueckner has developed a tentative chart in which principles underlying four levels of supervision are listed. The chart should be read first one column at a time. In this way the differences for each of the levels with respect to the principles listed for each of the eight points on the chart may be noted. Then the chart should be read horizontally, so that the reader can secure a mental picture of the combined characteristics of each of the four levels on all eight points as stated in the descriptive principles.

Any supervisor can use the chart to locate the level at which he is performing his duties. He can then choose the level at which he may feel he ought to work and then by conscious efforts strive to achieve this level. In many cities such as Detroit, Minneapolis, Denver, Los Angeles, and Hamtramck,[1] and in local school systems of several states such as Alabama, Connecticut, Maryland, North Carolina, and Wisconsin, a definite effort is being made to develop supervisory programs [2] which are democratic and which tend to approach the "purposing" level.

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[1] A detailed statement of this point of view is given in *The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools,* Research Series No. 2. The Board of Education, Hamtramck School District, 1927.

[2] *Educational Supervision,* First Yearbook of the National Conference on Educational Method, Chapters XVIII-XX. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

CHART I.—PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION

Level	Social theory involved	Respect for personality	Source of stimulus to improve	Methods of supervision	Basis of supervision	Flexibility of program	Relationship of teacher and supervisor	Choice of methods and materials of instruction
1. Purposing	Democracy; reconstruction of teaching to higher levels on basis of scientific method.	Absolute; individual guided by science.	The individual's desire for growth and for increased ability to apply the findings of educational science.	Continuous self-survey, self-study to locate needs; science guides.	Present needs of each teacher or group of teachers; factual data.	Completely adapted to needs and interests of individuals; supervisor available on call.	Supervision is a stimulating agency; supervisor is on a service basis.	The teacher chooses in the light of the needs and interests of the pupils, with due consideration of educational science.
2. Cooperation.	Progressive; voluntary cooperation in a program of improvement under direction of official agency.	Group action guides the individual in study of problems.	Voluntary activity under direction of supervisor; desire for growth.	Teacher cooperation sought in carrying out suggested programs; voluntary work desired; much research.	Program developed through conferences and group judgment; factual basis.	Provision for choice by individuals of types of activities to engage in; consideration of needs of individuals.	Supervisor is a leader of teachers in the study of their problems; inspection is subordinated.	The teacher selects from an approved course of study which allows much variation.
3. Participation.	Conservative; directed participation in applying new practices found successful in other school systems.	Attractive submission to authority.	Assigned participation in training activities; willingness to learn approved practices.	Teachers are assigned to creative work without regard to their special interests; some self-initiated activity encouraged; some research.	Program outlined by supervisor but modified according to suggestions; general impressions are basis.	Teachers are assigned to activities according to needs as judged by the supervisor.	Inspection and training activities are coordinated.	Choice is allowed only from certain accepted methods and materials.
4. Domination.	Reactionary; obedience to authority, not to science; acceptance of existing order without change.	Complete submission to authority required.	Obedience to order of the supervisory officer; fear of losing position.	Methods are based on tradition and prejudice; no research activities.	Unmodified program set up in advance by supervisor without survey of needs.	Rigid program with no variation for needs; all visits scheduled in advance.	The supervisor is a mere inspector of the work of the teacher.	Methods and materials are completely set up in advance; no modification permitted.

In evaluating any supervisory program, the experimenter must give due consideration to the general level of supervision and to the skill with which the supervisory activities at that level are being performed. Possibly the evidence which has been given in favor of supervision would have been even more striking if these two factors had been better controlled.

Undoubtedly some of the criticisms of supervision in certain quarters have been due not to the function itself but rather to the dictatorial methods by which supervisors have attempted to achieve their ends.

Experimental studies of the relative effectiveness of supervisory programs at each level of supervision are needed. Likewise it is desirable that attempts be made to develop reliable bases for determining the skill with which a supervisor works at a given level. It would then be possible to measure both the influence of the philosophy of the supervisor and of the skill with which he performs the duties of his office and to determine the effect of each on the results of his supervisory activities.

2. Use of Teacher-Rating Blanks to Measure Improvement in Teaching

In almost all school systems of any considerable size, teacher-rating blanks of some sort are used. Their function is largely that of supplying the administrative authorities with information to be used in the proper placement of teachers and also as one basis for promotion and dismissal. If they were reliable, it ought to be possible to use them to measure growth in teaching due to supervisory activities.

An extensive survey of teacher rating made by LeRoy King was published in the *American School Board Journal* of February, 1925. Dr. King covered a wide variety of considerations. His summary and conclusions are as follows:

1. Seventy percent of the cities that reported use a definite system of teacher rating.
2. In the opinion of 83 superintendents, 55 percent state that their teachers approve of rating, while 20 percent were uncertain.
3. The chief reasons assigned by 92 superintendents for the rating of teachers are to promote teaching efficiency, to stimulate teachers to improve themselves in service, and to serve as a basis for salary increases.
4. The principal, the superintendent, and the subject supervisor, in the order named, do most of the rating, according to 70 superintendents.
5. Combined or cumulative ratings are generally made by the superintendent annually in 66 percent of the cases reported.
6. Only 21 of the 70 cities give a copy of the rating to the teacher, and in only 41 cities do teachers have access to their ratings upon request.
7. Teachers rate themselves in 34 percent of the cities reported.
8. Directions for the administration, including the instruction and training of raters, in rating systems are quite frequently omitted. This is generally considered a serious adverse criticism of rating schemes from the standpoint of teachers' disapproval as herein reported. The variability among the distributions of ranks assigned to teachers by principals of the same city is often pronounced.

9. Thirty-eight different systems of marks were used in the 103 rating plans examined.
10. Conferences with individual teachers is the usual method employed with rating systems for the improvement of teachers in service.
11. The practice is quite general of combining teacher rating with salary schedules.
12. The aims of the course of study are neglected in the majority of rating plans.
13. A general absence of specific definition of qualities or factors prevails throughout the plans investigated or studied.
14. A general tendency predominates to consider the teacher rather than the results of teaching measured by pupil achievement or reaction, as expressed in knowledge, attitudes, habits, interests, and ideals.
15. Emphasis in rating plans as compared with the Boyce investigation made in 1914 is shifting (1) in the type of and emphasis placed upon qualities or factors used, (2) in the number of ranks in the marking system.
16. Very little recognition thus far has been given in rating plans to the varied capacities of children, a factor that must be taken into account when children are classified into homogeneous groups.
17. Criteria in teacher rating, on the basis of the cards examined, seem to be selected on the basis of the *common qualities* in teachers, rather than on the basis of *marked differentiation* in teachers.

There is available considerable evidence of the unreliability of these rating blanks as a means of rating the ability of the teacher. For example, Rugg, after studying the results obtained from the use of typical devices, concluded that "the unreliability of current typical ratings of teachers by principals is so great as to make them almost valueless."[1] Tiegs[2] and others have shown that the typical teacher-rating blank is of little value in supplying reliable data to be used in teacher selection. He found practically zero correlation between the ability rating of probationary teachers in Minneapolis on the basis of a typical rating blank and their rankings on the basis of photographs, mental tests, application blanks, letters of recommendation, and a trade test.

The supervisor who, as a measure of the effectiveness of his supervisory program, wishes to evaluate growth in ability of teachers by means of a rating blank, is confronted with the problem of devising by careful experimentation some reliable objective device for determining growth in teaching. Tiegs[2] gives the following statement as to the present status of the results of investigations to increase the reliability and validity of teacher rating:

1. Meriam used a technic for studying the relationship of various factors to teaching success, which still serves as a model to investigators; many investigators who followed him failed to make any significant additions.
2. Rugg found that current rating services were so unreliable as to be almost valueless.

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[1] Rugg, H. O., "Is the Rating of Human Character Practicable?" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, November, 1921-February, 1922.

[2] Tiegs, E. W. *An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Company, 1928.

3. Connor appears to have been the first to stress the fact that teaching should be measured by its results.
4. Kent called attention to the fact that few rating blanks provided any place for recording the results of teaching.
5. The Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association worked out technics for rating drill and problem work.
6. Monroe and Clark developed a weighted rating plan which takes into account five factors usually conceded to be important in conditioning the results of teaching.
7. Sears contributed a valuable analysis of the work done before 1921.
8. Courtis developed descriptions of four types of teachers.
9. Brueckner has developed descriptions of teaching skill, which may be used in rating each of the four types of teachers whose descriptions have been developed by Courtis. An experimental study of this technic yielded very promising results.
10. Knight obtained the following correlations:
    a. +.899 between chance halves of mutual ratings of teachers with each other.
    b. +.962 between the mutual ratings of teachers and the ratings of supervisors.
    c. +.68 between the mutual ratings of teachers and estimates of pupils.
    d. +.541 between general teaching ability and ability to pass a professional test.
11. Whitney obtained a coefficient of correlation of +.252 between six factors and teaching success.
12. Crabbs obtained a correlation of +.046 between teaching efficiency and professional knowledge.
13. Knight, Bathurst, Ruch, and Telford found a correlation of +.52 between scores on their trade test and teaching success.
14. Madsen reported evidence of a relationship between intelligence and teaching success.
15. Thayer contributed a very able discussion of the difficulties and limitations of teacher rating in the secondary schools.

Experimental studies should also be made to determine the relative effectiveness of ratings made by the supervisor and self-ratings by the teacher. There is a strong tendency at the present time to develop self-rating procedures whose function it is to assist the teacher to evaluate his work and to locate his points of superiority and his deficiencies. The assumption is made that a professionally-minded teacher who realizes his weaknesses will strive wholeheartedly to overcome them, and that it is the supervisor's task to provide a stimulating educational situation in which growth may take place. Such rating devices are not intended for administrative functions but are definitely supervisory instruments designed to help the teacher to improve through self-analysis and self-rating. It seems possible that the teacher should be able to measure his growth in teaching as the result of various activities initiated both by the teacher and by the supervisor.

3. Measuring Changes in Teaching Method and Skill

Recent investigations suggest the possibility of objectively measuring changes in teaching method and skill which may result from supervision.

Mead [1] has prepared a scale of descriptions of lessons arranged in the order of their merit as judged by groups of competent supervisors. Values are assigned each lesson by accepted statistical procedures. An observed recitation can be given a rating by comparing the procedures used in it with the lessons on the scale, and assigning the observed lesson a score given to a lesson having similar characteristics on the scale. Growth in teaching can therefore be determined by improvement as measured by this scale. The descriptions in the scale are based on lessons in a variety of subjects, such as spelling, arithmetic, and reading. No attempt has been made to provide descriptions of lessons for each of the subjects. No data are available showing what changes in teaching, as measured by this scale, have resulted from supervision. Such data could readily be secured by a group of supervisors.

The scale of lessons prepared by Mead has several limitations when it is used in measuring the effect of supervision; for example, it makes no provision for differences in general methods of teaching. Courtis [2] has pointed out that probably one of the chief factors causing the unreliability of estimates of teaching ability is the attitude of the rater toward the method used by the teacher. For example, a teacher of the old school teaching by formal methods may be rated as inferior by an observer who believes in a maximum of pupil activity and initiative. In the same way, a teacher who attempts to develop a large amount of pupil activity by teaching according to his interpretation of modern educational theory may be rated as inferior by a supervisor who does not accept this point of view. What is needed is experimental work to validate both of these methods, and any other method that may be proposed, by an experimental study of the results secured by these methods.

Another factor that enters into the problem of teacher rating is the skill with which the teacher is able to use the method he employs. The mere fact that a teacher is attempting to teach by the method which develops desirable types of pupil activity does not mean that he is a better teacher than another who teaches in an informal way. The latter may be much more skillful than the former in carrying on the type of work he is attempting to do. These differences in skill as well as in method must be taken into consideration in any experimental work being done to validate any method.

Observations of classroom practice in Minneapolis reveal wide differences in method from school to school and large differences in skill. Any educational experiment to evaluate teaching procedures carried on on a large scale must therefore take into consideration the two factors, method and skill. It is possible that in some of our experiments the results have been vitiated by differences between groups of teachers in respect to one of these two factors. At least it would be more desirable from a strictly scientific point of view if in addition to matching pupils, controlling equipment, ventilation, and other factors, we could actually match teachers as to method and skill according to some acceptable objective criteria. An attempt to develop such criteria has been made by Courtis and Brueckner. Courtis has defined four general methods of teaching,[1] based on an analysis of the types of activities in the classroom and the nature of the objectives of each method, as follows:

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[1] Mead, C. D., "Scaling Lessons Taught," *Journal of Educational Method*, Vol. VI, No. 3, pp. 115-9, No. 4, pp. 168-74, November, December, 1926.

[2] Courtis, S. A., "The Influence of the Philosophy of a Rater Upon Teacher Rating," *Sixteenth Yearbook,* National Society of College Teachers of Education, 1928, p. 42.

Type I—Compulsion—The subject-matter is organized wholly in terms of logical arrangement, usually of textbook arrangement. It is presented either orally or by text, with or without some explanation by the teacher. Pupils are expected to study the subject-matter and learn it by heart. The recitation consists in having the children give back what they have learned. Usually the form in which it is given must be exactly that of the text. Much dependence is placed on repetition, review, and drill. There are complete teacher domination and control and almost perfect attention because of the rigid discipline maintained by teacher coercion. Results in terms of knowledge are emphasized. Respect and unquestioning obedience are demanded of children.

Type II—Teacher preparation—Presentation of subject-matter is determined by the teacher's preparation rather than by the text, although based directly on the logical outline of the text arrangement. The teacher attempts to "predigest" the lesson, and believes that the amount learned will depend upon his efforts and explanations. Much use is made of the "five formal steps" or other lesson.plan schemes. Less rigid discipline is maintained than in Type I, but more than in Type III. There is complete teacher control. The teacher "talks down" to the children and makes use of many tricks and devices. Recitations are mainly giving back of facts learned in response to questions and drill through repetition. More variation from original or textbook form is accepted in answering than in Type I, but the effect of teaching is judged almost wholly in terms of knowledge and skill. The teacher is closer to the children in personal relations than in Type I, but maintains his place as "teacher"—a person consciously "superior" to the children in knowledge and virtue.

Type III—Motivation—The efforts of the teacher are consciously directed towards securing and holding the children's interests. Subject-matter is organized about major topics and provision is made for children's activity, but this is largely controlled by the teacher's directions. Much more supplementary material is used than in Types I and II, but lessons are distinctly subject-matter lessons with activity brought in as a means of learning. Discipline is usually much relaxed, and teachers and children meet on a friendly basis. There is less emphasis on knowedge than in Types I and II, and more on construction and handiwork. Drill and review are less evident, and with the less able teachers there is usually a lower standard of scholarship than in previous types. Subject-matter limits are also less rigorously observed than in previous types. Socialization of class work is sometimes attempted. This usually takes the form of having a pupil take the class in place of the teacher, but this is seldom true socialization.

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[1] Unpublished.

Type IV—Purposing—Class work is markedly divided into phases, part teacher-controlled, part pupil-controlled. The teacher is in control only during periods of stimulation and reflection, pupils being in full control during periods of activity, with the teacher assisting. Pupils' activity consists of the planning, executing, and judging essential to accomplishment of purposes. Lessons are set and appraised by pupils. Class work and disciplinary control are almost completely socialized; that is, organized and administered by the group, not by the teacher. There is almost no use made of questions and directions by the teacher as a means of recitation. Emphasis is placed on purposes, achievements, standards, and ideals, not on results purely in terms of knowledge and skill. There is very little, if any, learning in the sense of committing to memory except as a means to an end. There is much pupil-directed reference reading, and much use is made of rich supplemental material. There is also little organization of subject-matter in logical sequence, but the order and content of lessons are determined almost wholly by purposes. There is complete acceptance by the children of the teacher as one of the group, and almost perfect freedom of expression or of appeals for assistance.

It can be seen that these definitions present points of view of method that vary from the extremely rigid, formal type, compulsion, to the procedure which provides for a maximum of pupil initiative, choice, activity, and purposing. Courtis presents no data as to the validity of these methods; that is, he does not show by experimental evidence which of these methods actually secures the desired results. Obviously each method presents a different point of view as to the objective to be stressed. The evaluation of these methods is a problem which requires the most thorough-going study possible, since we need to know which is the best and whether the results claimed for each method are in fact being secured.

As has been pointed out, the degree of skill with which these methods are used by teachers must enter into any evaluation of the methods, since it is important that the results secured by teachers of equal skill for each of these methods be made the basis of the final evaluation. To assist in this, Brueckner has prepared and published standard scales[1] by which the skill with which each method is used may be evaluated. The scale for each method consists of nine descriptions of lessons in geography, ranging from a very inferior lesson with a scale value of 5.0 P. E. units to an excellent lesson with a scale value of from 16.2 P. E. units to 21.2 P. E. units. The detailed statistical procedure is described in the reference given in the footnote.

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[1] Brueckner, L. J., "Scales for the Rating of Teaching Skill," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXX, No. 12, College of Education, University of Minnesota, February, 1927. 28 pp.

The nature of these scales can be seen from the following abbreviated scale for the Compulsion Type, consisting of five of the nine lessons.

Abbreviated Scale for Compulsion Type

Teacher A *Scale Value 16.2*

The teacher was a rigid disciplinarian. Every child was compelled to keep in perfect order, to sit rigidly in the standard position, to pay absolute attention to everything that was said, and to strive to acquire perfection in all his work.

Every child worked during the study period at his top speed, because the lessons assigned were generally sufficiently long to require it, and the compelling force back of the command made by the teacher to know these important facts served to make everyone sit up and concentrate on what he was doing. On the other hand, if the material was difficult, the lessons assigned were short, so that it was possible to learn them.

Papers were marked with care, every *i* not dotted and every *t* not crossed being noted and later corrected by the pupil. Answers to questions which were not in the exact language of the book were counted wrong, and there were no supplementary readings or discussions. Any child could ask any formal question he wished about anything he did not understand, but the question had to be asked during the study period, not during the recitation.

The teacher was absolutely fair and impartial, knew every pupil's weakness and success, held herself up to the standards set for the class. Deliberate misbehavior was sure to receive swift and vigorous corporal punishment; failure to learn meant additional drill.

There were much well-organized drill and review. Class questioning was vigorous and snappy and enjoyed by the entire class. When the study of France was concluded, the children could answer any question of the continuous list, which the teacher had given without hesitation, and with no deviation from the words of the text.

Teacher C *Scale Value 11.5*

The teacher had assigned the subject-matter on France, logically, according to the textbook, stating emphatically that facts were to be memorized as they were found in their geographies. Cities, rivers, and mountains were to be located on their maps, and the list of questions in the book was to be used for drill work.

The next day the questions were asked rapidly and methodically with no explanation by the teacher. Children who timidly raised their hands for help were ignored. The drill and review work were enjoyed by most of the pupils, and although quite well organized, this part of the lesson was hurried through so rapidly that the slower pupils failed to profit by it. They became a source of annoyance until the most persistent of them was dismissed from the room.

During the class period, most of the children were interested and alert, and were able to give back the main facts of the lesson with a good measure of accuracy. The posture of the children was excellent and the lesson proceeded with snap and precision.

Teacher E *Scale Value 9.8*

"For the next assignment, take pages 118-119, and be ready to answer questions 10 to 20, particularly emphasizing 11, 14, 16, and 18. Look up difficult words in the dictionary, and refer to a large map of France in the textbook in locating places wanted in your reading."

Three or four pupils whose inattention the teacher failed to check were required to get their assignment from their neighbors. No connection was made between the previous lesson and the new assignment.

The teacher deviated occasionally from the logical order, due to lack of preparation on her part, thus confusing several of the pupils, and as a result, time was wasted in getting back on the track. All questions were stressed alike in spite of the fact that she had asked the pupils to pay particular attention to certain definite ones. No reference was made to the map and dictionary assignment. She stated that answers must be in the exact words of the book, but in four or five instances let inaccuracies slip by. A fair amount of drill was given over part of the work.

She asked questions of most of the pupils, but never worried if she failed to reach three or four of the same pupils each day. Seven or eight of the pupils failed to answer the questions they were asked, and only in two instances did she find out their difficulties. Instead they were marked zero, and someone else was called upon to give the answer. Two pupils were corrected, one for not standing on both feet, the other for leaning on the desk, but no attention was given to incorrect sitting posture of the other children.

At least three-fourths of the class were attentive during the whole period, and these learned some answers to most of the questions in the lesson. There was a strong bond of sympathy between the bright pupils and the teacher, but little attention was paid to the lower group, and as a result these pupils came to class reluctantly.

Teacher G *Scale Value 7.1*

The teacher, after reminding her 6A geography class that this was their last lesson on the study of France, said, "Complete yesterday's lesson, and begin with paragraph No. 1 on page 63, and finish the chapter."

During the recitation, the pupils of the class who had recited the previous day and knew that they would not be called upon today slouched in their seats and made no attempt to follow the work. The teacher was constantly nagging at the pupils who failed to respond, but gave them no help. Because of this, a few pupils disliked her and created as many difficulties as they dared. She meant to be fair in her decisions, but in her carelessness she blamed the children for things which they did not do. The drill given was very ineffective because it met the needs of so few of the pupils.

The results of the work were general ideas about France and a large mass of vague and often inaccurate information.

Teacher I *Scale Value 5.0*

The class had one more day to complete the study of France.

"Get out your books and begin where we left off." Several pupils who did not seem to know where the point was, wasted most of the study period thumbing through their texts, because they were afraid to disclose this fact to the teacher, and dared not ask a neighbor.

During the recitation which followed, the textbook map question list furnished the line of least resistance for the teacher. She attempted to ask the questions in their logical order. Frequently she lost her place, or asked the same question twice, because it was often necessary to stop the lesson to check disorder in the class, which occurred when she was off her guard. Then, to save time, she skipped two pivotal questions around which the subject was organized, with the remark, "We haven't time to take that up now."

Not once was the map on the wall referred to by either teacher or pupils. No attempt was made to check the pupils' answers, as she scarcely waited for them to reply until another point was taken up. Hence many inaccuracies crept in.

Several pupils who failed to answer any questions were given no help, and her only comment was, "It's your own fault, and you should never have been promoted to this grade anyway."

After many interruptions and outbursts of disorder, the work was only partially covered.

The entire class had a "don't care" attitude, and even the bright pupils gained only a vague and inaccurate notion of far-away France.

Brueckner[1] has presented data showing the reliability of these scales. Groups of competent, trained judges agree very closely in classifying observed lessons as to method, and deviations in ratings of skill according to the scale are small. Brueckner's suggested technic increases the reliability of ratings of lessons, since it eliminates the factor of the personal reaction of the rater to the method used and makes it necessary for the rater to evaluate the skill with which the teacher uses the particular type of method by which he is teaching. In the same report, data are given showing the wide variations in method and skill of teachers in five Minneapolis elementary schools. It is conceivable, therefore, that these scales can be used as one means of measuring objectively the changes produced in teaching method and skill by supervision. The procedure here described is somewhat similar to that of the Hamtramck study outlined in the preceding chapter but is much more objective and complete.

4. Measuring Changes in Levels of Teaching

Observations of the work of teachers suggest that there are many different levels of activities in the teaching of reading. Descriptions of these levels on a fairly well graduated scale may help the supervisor to locate the level which best describes the work of the school. The notion of levels here given is based in part on a discussion of the results of investigations of the teaching of reading by W. S. Gray. The following descriptions, prepared by Brueckner, begin with activities and objectives that are narrow in scope and proceed to descriptions of activities of an enriched type with broad objectives. No survey has been reported in which the technic here suggested has been used. It is published because of its suggestiveness as a basis for determining the level at which the teaching of reading in any school is being conducted and for measuring the changes made during a period of time as the result of a supervisory program.

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[1] *Educational Supervision*, First Yearbook of the National Conference on Educational Method, Chapter XIII, "An Objective Procedure for Evaluating Classroom Practice," pp. 176-96. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

Eight Levels of Activities in the Teaching of Reading

Level I—The teacher emphasizes the mechanics of oral and silent reading by having the pupils read aloud or silently and testing their comprehension of what is read. The objectives of the teaching are to develop the ability to read at a desirable rate, to pronounce the words correctly, and to understand what is read during the reading period. The content of the material read is limited to the textbook. The more scientifically the test is organized, the greater is the possibility that the teacher is securing valuable results.

Level II—The teacher has a broader concept of objectives than the teachers in Level I. In addition to developing the ability to read aloud in a satisfactory way, and to comprehend what is read orally or silently, the teacher stresses the development of the abilities and skills involved in work-reading.

This broader concept of objectives includes the ability to locate materials quickly, to organize what is read, and to summarize what is read. Some attention is given to dramatization and to various methods of enriching the mechanical phases of the work. The class is dealt with as a whole and no specific attention is given to remedial and diagnostic work. No attempt is made to create interests in reading in other subjects, but there is a definite effort to bring the pupil into contact with a variety of reading material in textbooks which contain both literary and factual selections.

Level III—The activities are in general similar to those on the second level. However, in addition to these, the teacher makes definite provision for diagnostic and remedial work for pupils who are encountering difficulties. There are many adjustments of the work to provide for individual differences. The subject-matter used in the reading period is limited to the regular textbooks in reading and in content subjects which may contain both factual and literary material. No definite attempts are made to broaden the pupil's reading interests, and recreational reading is neglected.

Level IV—This teacher has in mind the broader concept of reading objectives of the teacher at Level III and also provides for diagnostic and remedial work. The teacher differentiates the work according to the capacities of the pupils. In addition to this, a definite attempt is made to correlate the work of the reading period with the work in other subjects and to develop the necessary abilities required to carry them on satisfactorily. This teacher believes that the teaching of reading should not be limited to the regular reading period, and does not hesitate to teach reading in other periods when the need arises. Stress is placed chiefly on the abilities needed in the work type of reading, and pupils are given some training in reading literary material through the directed study of selections from suitable books. No attempt is made to encourage voluntary reading of a recreatory type, either in or out of school.

Level V—This teacher carries on all of the activities of the teacher at Level IV, but in addition stresses recreatory reading. No attempt is made to relate the recreatory reading to the content subjects. A definite effort is made to arouse an interest in free, unassigned reading outside of school.

This teacher believes that pupils should be encouraged to read whatever they may wish, regardless of the contribution that may be made to the work being done in the school in any other subject. This results in a diffusion of interests and effort rather than in a focusing of attention on organized fields of subject-matter.

Level VI—This teacher develops an enriched program of oral and silent reading activities of the work type, makes adequate provision for remedial work, and in addition to this, makes a definite attempt to relate the recreatory reading to the work in the content subjects. This teacher believes that organizing the reading in such a way is an economical procedure, since the child's recreational reading contributes to the achieving of the purpose of the school. Provision is also made to encourage reading of unassigned material outside of school and to develop broad reading interests.

Level VII—At this level the teaching of reading is organized on the basis of large units of study, prepared in detail by the teacher, or prescribed by the course of study. Stress is placed on directed study, the development of necessary study habits, the correlation of work and recreatory reading, and the systematic consideration of large bodies of subject-matter. The purpose of the teacher is to systematize the content of the material the pupil is to read and to develop the necessary skills, habits, attitudes, and appreciations in their natural setting. Provision is made for diagnostic and remedial work. Provision is also made for free reading of unassigned material to be read voluntarily by the pupil either in or out of school. The tendency clearly is to break down the compartmentalized subject organization. However, the stress is primarily upon the acquisition of a body of subject-matter, and the development of attitudes, ideals, and desirable types of behavior is subsidiary. The latter may be an expected outcome of the former, but no attempt is made to provide for this directly.

Level VIII—On Level VII the organization of the subject-matter is controlled by the teacher, and all pupil activity is directed by the teacher. On Level VIII provision is made for active pupil participation in the selection of the content of the reading work and in the organization of the subject-matter to be covered. Pupils and teacher cooperate in determining the character of the reading activities to be engaged in by the class. Little attention is paid to the traditional subjects of the curriculum. The basis of the organization of subject-matter is the belief that problems, topics, and subject-matter of all kinds should be within the interests of pupils. The basis of the method is the belief that pupils should learn in natural situations such as they encounter in life itself, so that self-control, self-direction, self-appraisal, and the ability to cooperate in groups may be a natural outgrowth of the work that is done.

Similar descriptions of levels of teaching in different subjects can readily be prepared and used both to suggest to teachers desirable objectives and methods and to evaluate the effectiveness of a supervisory program by the changes from one level to a higher one.

5. Elimination of Errors in Teaching Procedures

In a recent survey, Breed [1] suggests a survey technic by means of which errors in teaching procedures can be determined. The following extract from the report illustrates the types of errors that were found in the teaching of spelling:

1. *Irregularity and inadequacy of the time allowance*—This can be illustrated by a third grade, also by a fifth grade, in each of which spelling was taught only three days per week. The course requires fifteen to twenty minutes daily.

2. *Failure to use the adopted method*—This is much more common than it should be. One teacher was found to be using the study-test method; another informed the observer that she had taken up the Horn method "a week ago."

3. *Interference of project work with the systematic course in spelling*—In a sixth grade the teacher had the pupils working on a long list of words taken from a project. The pupils were being drilled on such words as *Minotaur* and *Theseus.* The observer sought his dictionary to revive the faded meanings of the two words mentioned. Scientific instruction in spelling does not permit the expenditure of valuable drill time on words haphazardly selected. The minimal essential vocabulary is our guide regarding the words to be taught. If spelling is to be related to the project method, the projects must be so organized as to facilitate the learning of these words.

4. *Pronouncing words too rapidly in tests*—In most instances teachers showed good judgment in adjusting to the proper writing rate of the pupils. One teacher, however, was found dictating words to a third grade at the rate of eight per minute.

5. *Insufficient attention to writing difficulties*—Many pupils in grades 2 and 3 have trouble in spelling on account of deficiencies in handwriting. They confuse such forms as *a* and *o, b* and *h, m* and *n.* The teachers should give more attention to this point in the grades mentioned.

6. *Mispronunciation of words by teachers*—The teachers must be admonished to talk English when pronouncing words for spelling purposes. Such mispronunciations as *a-cross* for *across, a-long* for *along, la-bor* for *labor, worrie-da* for *worried* were heard. Words should be pronounced in the spelling classes precisely as good usage dictates.

7. *Failure to give a sentence containing the word, following its pronunciation in a test*—In one classroom the word capital (or capitol) was pronounced. No sentence was given. In another class the teacher pronounced a word that sounded like *down.* A boy near the visitor wrote *ground.* The word was found later to be *brown.* The boy was charged with an error. All this misunderstanding should have been avoided. The teacher should have used the work in a sentence following its pronunciation.

8. *Exhibition of incorrect forms*—As a part of her technic for helping pupils to overcome the *ie* difficulty in words like friend and piece, a teacher placed the incorrect forms, freind and peice, on the board. This practice has not the support of modern psychology. The positive approach is better than the negative in this instance.

9. *Unsatisfactory management of the time allowance*—Some teachers were observed to exceed the time scheduled for a spelling lesson; others left the lesson unfinished at the end of the period. Not only in spelling, but in general, more respect for the time schedule needs to be cultivated.

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[1] Breed, F. S., *A Study of Materials and Methods of Instruction in the Wilmette, Ill., Public Schools,* 1926.

10. *Ineffective training of pupils in methods of study*—Of the ten items in this list, this one is by far the most important. The central thing in spelling instruction is the proper direction of the pupils' study activities. In the past we have paid much attention to definitions of methods in terms of teacher activity. Now we are more and more coming to define the educative process in terms of the mental activities of the pupil. In spelling courses we are telling the pupil what to do in language that he can understand. It is the business of the teacher to provide such instructional direction and leadership that the pupil will actually do these things.

No data are available as to the extent to which these teaching errors in spelling or in any other subject were found in a resurvey. It is evident that a technic that might be used to evaluate the effectiveness of a supervisory program would be to determine the extent to which errors in teaching procedures had been reduced as the result of the supervisory activities. The difficulty with the technic is the determination of just what constitutes an error in teaching method. The ever-growing body of scientific data concerning merits of teaching practices should make it possible to list practices which at least are undesirable or questionable.

6. Elimination of Teachers' Difficulties

Waples has suggested that supervisors should determine teachers' difficulties as a basis for supervision. The difficulties may be either those noted by the supervisor or those reported by the teacher. Such a technic is of obvious value since it is one of the functions of the supervisor "to help teachers to avoid as many difficulties as possible and to help them overcome the difficulties that cannot be avoided." When the difficulties have been determined and clearly defined, the supervisor can render efficient help by systematic planning.

According to Waples, the supervisory problems involved in the selection of methods appropriate to a given classroom situation may be classified under one or more of the six following types:[1]

1). To anticipate the teaching difficulties of beginning teachers or of experienced teachers undertaking a new teaching assignment.

2). To help individual teachers recognize the difficulties of which they are only vaguely conscious and to make such difficulties explicit in terms of typical classroom situations.

3). To collect the difficulties which the teachers of a given school, department, or grade are able to define and to organize the difficulties so as to provide a program for systematic supervision of the group of teachers concerned.

4). To evaluate the difficulties with respect to such criteria as frequency, importance, and seriousness—for the group of teachers concerned.

5). To analyze a given type of difficulty into the specific difficulties it involves, in order that the specific difficulties may be more conveniently solved.

6). To collect solutions for the difficulties from available sources and to organize the solutions for the teachers' convenient use.

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[1] *Scientific Method in Supervision,* Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, p. 77. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

The extent to which teachers' difficulties are eliminated or reduced may well be used as the basis for evaluating supervision. It is of course difficult to make any quantitative evaluation of the extent to which this is done. "Observable" changes in the teaching situation can be considered to be valid evidence of the effectiveness of this supervisory procedure. Waples[1] has devised an excellent technic for aiding teachers to locate their difficulties and to arrive at solutions for their problems. As Waples points out, "an advantage in using the teachers' difficulty as a basis for supervision lies in the fact that the person who confronts difficulty is eager to overcome it."

An important element in this technic of determining specific needs of teachers is the preparation of comprehensive, supervisory check lists[2] by means of which the supervisor can make reliable analysis of the supervisory needs of the teacher. The following blank prepared by Brueckner has been used in making surveys of the supervisory needs of teachers of artithmetic. Each teacher is given a copy of the blank and is asked to indicate his general evaluation of his own skill on each of the topics and sub-topics in the blank by the code of symbols indicated. A summary of these various reactions has been used with good success as the basis for a supervisory program in arithmetic since the major teaching difficulties could readily be determined. The blank in a modified form may be used by the supervisor as a cumulative means of locating supervisory needs of teachers of arithmetic. A resurvey by means of this blank will indicate the extent to which the difficulties have been eliminated. Similar blanks for other subjects should be prepared.

CHART II.—DETAILED CHECK LIST FOR MAKING AN ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISORY NEEDS OF A TEACHER OF ARITHMETIC

Name____________________ Room________________Grade________

Recording code: + = Work of superior quality; relay to other teachers
△ = Average level
— = Need help
0 = No evidence

Cumulative Record

1. Background of technical teaching equipment:
   a. Knowing the processes and topics to be taught the class.
   b. Knowing the historical development and significance of the important applications of number.
   c. Knowing current social applications of number in business, etc.
   d. Having reasonable speed and accuracy in computation.
   e. Knowing short-cut methods of computation.
   f. Knowing reasonable standards of attainment.

2. Knowledge of specific objectives and functions of arithmetic:

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[1] Waples, Douglas, *Problems in Classroom Method.* New York, The Macmillan Company, 1927.

[2] *Scientific Method in Supervision,* Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Chapter XII. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Contains an excellent statement of the basis for developing such a check list.

CHART II.—DETAILED CHECK LIST FOR MAKING AN ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISORY NEEDS OF A TEACHER OF ARITHMETIC—(Continued)

Cumulative Record

- a. Using materials and processes having social value.
- b. Showing how number has aided in the systematizing of the quantitative aspects of the environment.
- c. Developing an appreciation of the informational function of arithmetic.
- d. Developing an appreciation of number as a means of precise and accurate thought.
- e. Having an appreciation that arithmetic is in fact a social study of great importance.
- f. Assisting pupils to understand quantitative references in readings.
- g. Developing adequate concepts of units of measurement.
- h. Training pupils in the use of reference materials.
- i. Selecting social applications of value.

3. Recognition of the function of general method in the teaching of arithmetic:
    - a. Knowing how to organize subject-matter into large units for study by the class.
    - b. Securing a learning situation in which motives of a relatively high order are present.
    - c. Providing conditions in which the growth of desirable social characteristics, attitudes, and ideals will take place.
    - d. Recognizing the possibilities of socializing experiences in the lesson.
    - e. Enriching and vitalizing the experiences of pupils.
    - f. Recognizing arithmetic applications in other subjects, such as history, geography, science, and health work.
    - g. Using experiences and activities that arise in connection with local conditions and situations.
    - h. Providing intercorrelations between subjects in situations in which number functions.

4. Procedures in presenting new processes:
    - a. Knowing the steps in the learning process.
    - b. Showing the social utility of the new step in a process through applications and problems.
    - c. Using previously acquired skills in presenting a new step.
    - d. Presenting only one new step at a time.
    - e. Considering special difficulties in the new step.
    - f. Providing adequate practice on the new step.
    - g. Giving special help to those pupils for whom the class presentation is not adequate.
    - h. Teaching efficient methods of work.
    - i. Providing for the repeated review of the new step in subsequent lessons to insure retention of the new skill.

5. Procedures in diagnosing pupil difficulties:
    - a. Locating the specific needs of the pupils in the class.
    - b. Knowing the most common pupil faults and weaknesses in processes.

CHART II.—DETAILED CHECK LIST FOR MAKING AN ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISORY NEEDS OF A TEACHER OF ARITHMETIC—(Continued)

Cumulative Record

c. Using suitable diagnostic procedures.
d. Preparing informal diagnostic exercises.
e. Teaching pupils to diagnose their own difficulties.
f. Adjusting the class work in such a way that the teacher has time available for diagnosis of pupil difficulties.
g. Selecting pupils in need of intensive diagnostic study.
h. Keeping records of diagnosis.
i. Filing the results of standard diagnostic tests.
j. Using graphs, etc., to interpret shortcomings.
k. Using school records to locate other causes of deficiencies.
l. Considering the pupil's personality as a factor in diagnosis.
m. Interpreting the results of the diagnostic study.

6. Procedures in providing remedial instruction:
   a. Selecting the remedial exercises adapted to the needs of each individual.
   b. Organizing group work as the basis for instruction.
   c. Eliminating faulty habits, such as counting.
   d. Correcting faulty, inefficient methods of work.
   e. Teaching methods of checking all work.
   f. Using pupils whose work is satisfactory to assist deficient pupils.
   g. Devising methods of showing pupils their improvement.
   h. Teaching pupils how to select the proper remedial exercises.
   i. Providing for variations in rates of pupil progress.
   j. Evaluating the effectiveness of the remedial work by tests.
   k. Setting up reasonable standards of attainment.
   l. Teaching pupils good technics of problem solving.

7. Methods of making the work vital and meaningful for the pupils:
   a. Teaching pupils to purpose to improve.
   b. Using materials of the proper level of difficulty.
   c. Motivating the drill work.
   d. Making pupils conscious of objectives.
   e. Helping pupils to diagnose their difficulties.
   f. Helping pupils to overcome their difficulties.
   g. Using graphs and charts to show achievements.
   h. Using games.
   i. Providing activities in which arithmetic processes are applied concretely.
   j. Showing the life need of processes prior to teaching them.
   k. Using illustrations from daily life to show application of processes.
   l. Encouraging original applications of processes.
   m. Showing applications of processes in other subjects.
   n. Using excursions, exhibits, and projects.
   o. Showing social significance of quantitative concepts.

CHART II.—DETAILED CHECK LIST FOR MAKING AN ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISORY NEEDS OF A TEACHER OF ARITHMETIC—(Continued)

Cumulative Record

p. Providing opportunities for exploring topics of special interest.
q. Keeping of notebooks on topics being studied.
r. Assigning topics for special reports.
s. Distributing opportunity for participation in class activities.
t. Organizing the contents of the subject-matter to be taken up into coherent units stressing applications and functions.

8. Methods of socializing the work in the class period:
a. Providing for group or committee work on special topics.
b. Providing opportunities for pupils to assist in organizing and planning class activities and discussions.
c. Using superior pupils to assist those below standard.
d. Assigning special topics for research.
e. Encouraging practical applications of processes in the home and elsewhere.
f. Organizing the aspects of the school bank, milk supply, etc., in which arithmetic is used, in such a way that pupils participate in phases of the activity.
g. Considering questions of thrift in the home and in school.
h. Using a socialized form of recitation.
i. Considering the social significance of such topics as money and the number system.
j. Arousing interest and developing habits of extensive reading on topics being considered by the class.
k. Developing an appreciation of the social significance of quantitative relations.
l. Posting papers of special merit.
m. Encouraging courtesy on the part of pupils whose work is completed before that of the others.
n. Requiring neatness in all written work.

9. Use of tests in instructing:
a. Standard tests:
    1) Giving of tests.
    2) Scoring of tests.
    3) Tabulating test results.
    4) Interpreting test results.
    5) Considering limitations of standard tests.
    6) Charting test results.
    7) Using test results as the basis for group work and for remedial work.
    8) Using the results of standard diagnostic tests.
    9) Utilizing provisions that enable the teacher to secure test materials.
    10) Filing of findings and test papers.
    11) Selecting tests suited to the purpose of the teacher.

b. Informal tests:
    1) Constructing informal tests—giving informal tests.

CHART II.—DETAILED CHECK LIST FOR MAKING AN ANALYSIS OF THE SUPERVISORY NEEDS OF A TEACHER OF ARITHMETIC—(Continued)

Cumulative Record

2) Scoring informal tests.
3) Using informal tests effectively, as inventory, pre-test and re-test.
4) Tabulating informal test results.
5) Interpreting test scores.
6) Considering the limitations of test scores.
7) Varying the form of test used.
8) Using test scores as the basis for remedial work and diagnosis.
9) Filing informal tests for future use.
10) Using school equipment, such as school mimeograph, in preparing tests.
11) Preventing pupil cheating on tests.
12) Cooperating with other teachers in the preparation of tests.

c. Use of pertinent data from other tests:
  1) Considering intelligence test scores in diagnosis.
  2) Using reading test scores as basis for diagnosis of difficulties in problem solving.

10. Points of a general character:
  a. Filing of materials of instruction, such as drill cards.
  b. Keeping of records of pupil progress.
  c. Planning of work and preparation of materials to be used.
  d. Preparing improved types of supplementary materials.
  e. Distributing of time to problem and formal drill work.
  f. Handling the disciplinary problem.
  g. Keeping available materials essential in an ideal modern program of arithmetic.
  h. Using the course of study for reference and guidance.
  i. Using the textbook as a teaching tool.
  j. Reading important scientific contributions on aspects of arithmetic.
  k. Handling details of method technic.
  l. Supervising pupil's work during supervised study periods.

7. Evaluation of Supervision through Semi-Objective Rating Devices

N. L. Engelhardt[1] has published in mimeographed form a rating blank by means of which the superintendent can evaluate the effectiveness of supervision in a school system. The items in the blank, which is quite detailed, are grouped under nine heads, as follows:

1. General policies and program
2. The curriculum
3. Selection and improvement of teachers

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[1] Engelhardt, N. L., *Superintendents' Checking List for the Evaluation of the Supervisory and Instructional Programs.* New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926, 33 pp.

4. Buildings and equipment as related to instructional and health needs
5. Interrelation of the school system with the community
6. Classification and progress
7. Measurement program
8. Physical welfare
9. Application and adaptation of school machinery to advance program.

The following portion of the blank indicates the nature of the procedure suggested:

	SCALE
III. There is a definite program for the improvement of teachers in service	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
1. This program is such that it provides for improvement in:	
a. The mechanics of teaching	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
b. Knowledge of subject-matter	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
c. Professional idealism	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
2. This program utilizes the following agencies for improvement:	
Some kind of extension teaching	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
University, college, normal school, courses by state, summer schools:	
a. Where these are not readily accessible, or where they need supplementing, the local board of education provides courses under its auspices	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
b. The superintendent assumes the responsibility for seeing that extension teaching is available	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
c. Suggestive information is published and circulated for the benefit of teachers	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
d. The records show that a large percent of the teachers have attended	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
e. Such records are available in tabulated form from the files	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
3. Teachers' meetings:	
Entire city group (institutes included here)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
a. These meetings are held regularly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
b. There are also special meetings held	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
c. Institutes provide for sectional meetings	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
d. A due proportion of the time is devoted to discussion as contrasted with lectures	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
e. Due proportion is concerned with material and methods of instruction as contrasted with inspirational type	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
f. Both local and outside speakers are included	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
g. Special committee reports are made and discussed	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
h. Demonstration is provided for	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

While the ratings of a school system on each of the items included in the check list are highly subjective, the procedure suggests a possible technic by which a superintendent may evaluate the results of his supervisory program over a period of years. A careful study should be made to attempt to define the items in the check list clearly and to afford a reliable basis for rating each.

8. Improvement in the Character of the Materials of Instruction

One of the important factors in the educational situation which has a marked bearing on the quality of teaching is the nature of the materials of instruction. A supervisor should make a careful inventory of these materials and work for an improvement where conditions are not satisfactory. An interesting method of measuring the status of the materials in reading has been developed by Zirbes.[1] A scale, in which the materials found at four levels of instruction are described, has been prepared. By means of this scale the supervisor can readily measure the present status of the materials in reading and the status at the later period as a means of determining the improvement produced by a supervisory program. The scale prepared by Zirbes also suggests desirable standards of equipment in reading to guide the activities of the supervisor. Similar scales for evaluation of instructional materials in other subjects should be prepared.

9. Objective Analysis of Activities in the Classroom

Improvement in teaching may be measured objectively by a quantitative analysis of various aspects of the recitation. Any supervisor can list what may be considered to be desirable types of activities in recitations. During observations of a class, records may be made of the frequency with which such activities occur. An analysis of the results may reveal the desirability of changes in instructional procedures that can be considered by the teacher and supervisor together. The extent to which the changes that are desired have taken place will be revealed by the findings of subsequent observations.

Horn,[2] Stevens,[3] Ayres,[4] Barr,[5] and others have applied the technic of objective analysis of classroom activities in investigations whose purpose it was to picture definitely the status of teaching in the classroom. The following statement from the Springfield Survey gives the results of one of the first attempts to apply this technic in a survey of classroom teaching:

> When the members of the survey staff made their written reports on the recitations, they included some simple notes designed to indicate whether the teachers were mainly engaged in questioning pupils to find how well they remembered what they had studied in the books, or whether they were trying to help the children through observing, thinking, and discussing.
>
> In the first place, they noted whether it was the teacher or a pupil who was talking when the visitor entered. In seven rooms out of every ten it was the teacher who was doing the talking, while in the remaining three it was a pupil.

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[1] Zirbes, Laura, *Comparative Studies of Current Practice in Reading with Techniques for the Improvement of Teaching.* Contributions to Education, No. 316. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

[2] Horn, Ernest, *Distribution of Opportunity for Participation among the Various Pupils in Class-Room Recitations.* Contributions to Education, No. 67. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1914.

[3] Stevens, Romiett, *The Question as a Measure of Efficiency in Instruction.* Contributions to Education, No. 48. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1912.

[4] Ayres, Leonard P., *Public Schools of Springfield, Illinois.* New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1914.

[5] Barr, Arvil S., *Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Company, 1929.

Similarly, a record was made as to whether the recitation was predominantly one in which the teacher heard the pupils recite or whether he was attempting to stimulate them to think for themselves. In seven rooms out of every ten, the records show that in the judgment of the visitor the teacher was mainly engaged in hearing the pupils recite what they had learned in the book.

Another record made at each recitation related to the type of questioning mainly employed by the teacher. The results showed that in eight out of each ten rooms the observer judged that the questions were predominantly of such a nature that the pupils could answer them only by stating facts or giving definite information. In two out of each ten rooms the object of the questioning was mainly to get the pupils to describe or explain.

A fourth set of records related to the answers of the pupils and showed whether these mainly consisted of single words, of phrases, or of sentences. These records show that the pupils in five rooms out of every ten answered mainly in single words, while in two cases they used phrases, and in the remaining three the answers were mostly in complete sentences.

Ayres does not make an evaluation of the facts presented. If similar data are secured concerning any other situations that in the judgment of a supervisor are not satisfactory, an effort may be made to bring about changes. The extent to which these changes take place can be determined by a second survey, thereby affording a measure of the effectiveness of the supervisory program in producing changes in the nature of activities in the classroom.

In making objective studies of classroom activities, the supervisor may select as wide a range of items for study as he wishes. He may choose to study a single item, such as the number of questions asked by the teacher, or the number of voluntary contributions by the pupils, or he may wish to make as complete an analysis of the aspects of the lesson as is possible by means of a detailed chart such as that of MacQuarrie, which appears as Chart III on page 165. One supervisor observed that a teacher was constantly interrupting the recitations of pupils. He made a check of the number of times interruptions occurred in a twenty-minute period and listed 32 interruptions. He reported this fact to the teacher, who was greatly surprised by the information and made an earnest effort to overcome this fault. Subsequent observations by the supervisor showed that the fault had been quickly eliminated. Factual data of this kind make supervision impersonal, and the discussions of teaching procedures can be conducted on the basis of objective information rather than on the basis of vague impressions and incorrect generalization.

The use of MacQuarrie's graphic supervision chart in analyzing a lesson [1]—Classroom work is supervised and recorded by four methods:

I. Graphic recording of student and teacher activity according to time.
II. Check analysis and evaluation of the factors in the teaching process.
III. Code recording on room diagram of student and teacher participation.
IV. Check analysis of the teaching unit.

To use the chart effectively, the supervisor should practice recording one phase at a time until he becomes proficient. He may elect to note only the

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[1] Prepared for Supervision Commission by Archibald E. MacQuarrie, Principal, Washburn High School, Minneapolis, Minn.

CHART III.—THE MacQUARRIE GRAPHIC SUPERVISION CHART

THE MAC QUARRIE GRAPHIC SUPERVISION CHART

I. Code Teacher ____________ Subject ____________ Date ____________ Interviewed ____________ Rating ____________
F — Ques. ____________
G — State. ____________
Other ____________
TIME—0 ____ 5 ____ 10 ____ 15 ____ 20 ____ 25 ____ 30 ____ 35 ____ 40 ____ 45 ____ 50 ____ 55 ____ 60 ____
Pupil ____________
F — Ques. ____________
G — State. ____________
Other ____________
C.1 A.I.U. ____________

II. FACTORS IN THE TEACHING PROCESS

A. PHYSICAL CONDITION
1. Lighting
2. Temperature
3. Ventilation
4. Distractions

B. EQUIPMENT
1. Maps
2. Bulletin Board
3. Blackboard
4. Supp. Material
5. Vacant Seats
6. Double Seats
7. Exhibits
8. Equipment
9. Supplies
10. Custodianship
11.

C. PUPIL TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS
1. Attention interest unit
2. Evidence of mental power
3. Spirit
4. Posture
5. Health
6. Tact
7. System
8. Poise
9. Use of English
10. Board Writing
11. Commendation
12. Sarcasm
13. Discipline
14. Criticism
15. Disorder
16. Punctuality
17. Voice-Volume-Pitch
18. Appearance; happy, stern

D. TEACHING HELPS
1. Helping
2. Conferring
3. Demonstrating
4. Inspection of work
5. Diagnosis
6. Correction of Work

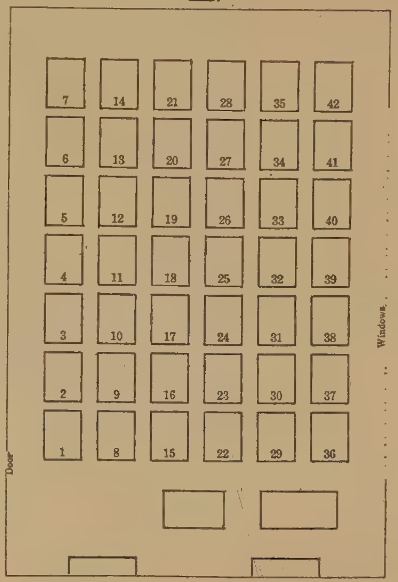
E. PERSONAL ACTIVITIES
1. Teacher: a. seated
b. standing
c. roaming
2. Pupil:
3. Messenger
4. Monitor
5. Visitor

F. QUESTIONS
1. a. fact
b. judgment
c. interpretive
2. Yes - No
3. Repeated
4. Volunteer
5. Poor-Incorrect
6. Unison
7. Developing
8. Leading
9. Assisting
10. Read
11. Written
12. Dictated
13. Bluffing
14. Testing
15. Review
16. Summarizing
17. Interruption
18. Blunderbuss

G. STATEMENTS
1. a. fact
b. judgment
c. interpretive
2. Yes - No
3. Repeated
4. Volunteer
5. Poor-Incorrect
6. Unison
7. Developing
8. Leading
9. Assisting
10. Read
11. Written
12. Dictated
13. Bluffing
14. Explanatory
15. Correcting work
16. Comment
17. Testing
18. Review
19. Summarizing
20. Interruption
21. Suggestion
22. Correction
23. Direction
24. Lecture
25. Translation

H. EVALUATION
1. Professional Knowledge
2. Teaching Ability
3. Preparation Type
4. Motivation
5. Compulsion
6. Purposing

III.



SPECIAL CODE FOR RAPID RECORDING
Question. . . . . arrow
Statement. . . . . line
Pupil. . . . . his number
Entire Group. X
Reciting before class. . . . . . . Pupil number in triangle

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IV. ANALYSIS OF TEACHING UNIT

I. ASSIGNMENT
1. Topical
2. Problem to be solved
3. Pages or Paragraphs
4. Outline to be filled
5. Individual reports
6. Continuation of previous assignment
7. Review
8. Series of questions or problems
9.
10.
11.

J. RECITATION
1. Topical
2. Ques. and Answer
3. Socialized
4. Individual reports
5. Projects
6. Test-Time
7. Development
8. Demonstration original problem
9. Drill-Time
10. Reporting assigned work
11. Review
12. Written Lesson
13.

K. SUPERVISED STUDY
1. Individual help or guidance
2. Drill
3. Suggestion of devices
4. Explanation of difficult points; answering questions
5. Inspection of student's work
6. Checking student's work
7. Guiding generalizations
8. Undirected free study
9. Group study
10. Library study
11.
12.
13.
14.
15.

analysis of the teaching unit. He may prefer to consider only a few factors in the teaching process. As he gains experience and proficiency in observing a class, he will find it possible to record without difficulty the four phases at one observation.

Recording. Three methods of recording are used.

Recording according to time is done by indicating the letter group and number as a coefficient; for example, lighting is listed as number 1 under physical condition, which is the "A" group. It is therefore recorded A-1. Temperature would be A-2, maps B-1, supplies B-9, etc.

In analyzing the factors in the teaching process, it was found that the average recitation is made up largely of questions, statements, and activities. To simplify the recording according to time, "F" group—the question group, and "G" group—the statement group, were listed at the top of the chart. It was thereby possible to record questions and statements by indicating the number in the group. For example, to record a unison question asked by the teacher, the numeral 6 was on the "F" or question line. To record a dictated statement made after thirty minutes of the class time had elapsed, number 12 would be recorded on the statement line "G" above the thirty-minute time interval. To note, when the making of the assignment was begun, large capital "I" would be placed above the time interval. For example, if the assignment were made the first of the recitation and were topical in nature, "I" with the coefficient of 1 would appear in the space above the time interval. If the assignment were made by a pupil, the number of the pupil as shown by the diagram would appear opposite the line indicated "pupil," and the type of assignment would be indicated in the space below the time line reserved for pupil participation. To note on the time space factors in the teaching process other than questions or statements, the line described as "other" would be used; for example, B-3 in the pupil space would indicate that the pupil was doing blackboard work, the particular pupil would be shown by his number that appeared on the pupil line. In case the blackboard work were done by the teacher, B-3 would be recorded on the line described as "other" in the space reserved for teacher participation.

To record on the room diagram student and teacher participation, the alphabetical listing with numerical coefficient may be used, or the special code for rapid recording may be substituted. This is done, for example, by representing a question by an arrow and a statement by a short line. If pupil 31 asked a question of the teacher, it might be recorded in space 31 as F-1-a, which would indicate that it was a fact question, or it could be simply recorded by an arrow showing that a question had been asked.

To record a statement which was of a bluffing nature, G-13 might appear in the rectangle 23 on the room diagram indicating pupil 23, or a short line might appear in rectangle 23 to represent a statement. In such a case, a number above the dash line would represent the type of statement made. In the case of a bluffing statement, it would be 13. Suppose it is desired to show what pupils work at the blackboard and at what blackboards they work.

That activity could be presented on the room diagram by B-3, indicating at the same time the pupil number.

Reference has been made to the fact that the assignment, recitation, or supervised study may be noted graphically on the upper part of the supervision chart, which records the teaching activity according to time. Some find it helpful to, at the same time, check under the analysis of the teaching unit the nature of the particular assignment, recitation, or supervised study. For example, if, with fifteen minutes of the sixty-minute period remaining, supervised studying consisting of individual help or guidance were to be recorded, it would appear above the forty-five-minute time space as K-1; and at the same time a small check would be placed in front of K-1 in Roman numeral group IV. If the type of supervised study were of a nature not listed in the ten items appearing on the chart, it could be written in at the right of the chart opposite 11, and the code form would then be K-11. Ample margin is provided at the left and right of the chart for comprehensive notes descriptive of the class supervised.

10. Objective Analysis of Characteristics of Pupil Behavior as Indices of the Quality of Instruction

Investigations have shown that supervisors consider the evidences of pupil interest and activity as a major element in making an evaluation of the quality of instruction in the classroom. Interest is evidenced by the degree of attention given by the pupils to the work at hand. A high degree of attention is indicative of interest in the work of the class; an evident lack of attention shows that the lesson does not appeal to the pupils as worthwhile or interesting. The supervisor's problem is to aid the teacher to locate the causes of inattention and to devise methods of overcoming them. The success with which the problem has been solved may be measured by the increase in the degree of pupil attention.

Just as objective methods of measuring pupil achivement by means of standard tests have revealed the deficiencies of instruction, so an adequate objective device for measuring group or individual pupil attention has resulted in a study of the factors affecting the attitudes of the pupils. As Morrison[1] points out,

> Group attention is frequently ignored. Under the influence of the daily task of teaching, the teacher's mind is apt to be fixed upon hearing individual recitations rather than upon teaching. Not unnaturally, he overlooks the importance of securing and holding the undivided attention of every member of the group. The characteristic picture of such a situation is eager attention on the part of a few pupils, occasional attention on the part of a few others, and no attention at all on the part of a large percentage of the class. Obviously, a large waste occurs. . . .
>
> Hence, neglect of the group-attention aspect of the learning situation means that group teaching has little or no effect. It registers only casually, and its results are seen later in the form of chance distribution. Obviously, mastery need not be looked for in the class as a whole.

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[1] Morrison, Henry C., *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School,* p. 103. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1926.

Morrison has devised a technic for measuring group attention. He defines the *group-attention score* as the percentage of pupil-minutes of attention during the period of observation. The observer counts the number of pupils who are not at attention at intervals of one, two, or more minutes during the lesson and finds the average percentage of attention for the several periods. By means of a seating chart, a record may be made of the attention of each pupil in the class. Morrison has also suggested the use of an individual pupil profile of attention during class period as a basis of diagnosis of causes of failure. Investigations by Blume and others show that the attention technic is reliable and easily applied by an individual observer after a short period of practice.

An analysis of the quality of attention as evidenced by the data for different parts of the lesson affords an excellent basis of diagnosis of the causes of inattention. Long [1] has shown that inattention results because of lack of preparation on the part of the teacher, faulty procedures in teaching, faulty technics, the use of too difficult material, and similar factors. The extent to which such conditions have been eliminated will be revealed by an increase in the pupil attention score.

In the Winnetka school survey, the attention technic was used to compare the quality of attention in the Winnetka schools and in several conventional schools. The differences found aid in an evaluation of the kinds of instruction found in these schools.

11. Miscellaneous Technics

The following technics are merely listed because of their probable value and usefulness in measuring the effectiveness of supervision. The methods by which they are to be applied must be developed in each locality.

a. The increase in pupil attention, as measured by the Morrison attention technic.[2]
b. The extent of teacher participation in such activities as the construction of courses of study, the development of materials of instruction, etc.
c. The better use and distribution of the time in a class period.
d. The extent to which teachers are making increased use of approved educational procedures in the classroom.
e. The extent to which faulty pupil habits of work are eliminated.
f. The extent to which use is made of library facilities.
g. The extent to which the results of tests are used more efficiently.
h. The extent to which instruction has been adapted to the needs of the pupils.
i. The elimination of instruction handicaps.
j. The changes in the attitudes, appreciations, and conduct of the pupils.
k. Student estimates of the improvement of instruction.
l. The increase in the number and quality of scientific educational investigations under way in the school system.
m. Reduction in failures and increases in retention of pupils in school.

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[1] Long, Wilbur F., "Pupil Attention in Arithmetic," *University of Pittsburgh, School of Education Journal*, Vol. III, November-December, 1927, pp. 27-29, 32-33.

[2] *Scientific Method in Supervision*, Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Chapter III. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

n. Evidences that the school is becoming increasingly effective in the development of intelligent citizens adjusted to life in a democracy.
o. Changes in the attitude of the community.
p. Evidence of increased efficiency in the uses of the funds expended for instructional purposes.
q. The growth in teaching as measured by trade tests or similar tests of teaching ability.
r. Evidences of increased ability of the teacher to solve his problems independently and to initiate the necessary improvement program.
s. The extent to which principals are able to exercise the supervisory functions of guidance.

Conclusion

It is obvious that the evaluation of the effectiveness of supervision must take into consideration the point of view from which the supervision is undertaken and the skill with which the activities are performed by the supervisor. In organizing a supervisory program, every effort must be made to secure the hearty cooperation and support of the teaching body. This may be accomplished if the leadership of the supervision is professional, competent, and democratic. Problems are not solved by compulsion and autocratic methods; they are merely suppressed for the time being and may arise again at any time under most unfavorable conditions. Real growth results from a consideration of the findings of educational science and an intelligent modification of practices in the light of these facts.

The various experimental studies that have been suggested require the use of objective, analytical devices by means of which the supervisor can make an impersonal survey of the educational situation on the basis of which to plan a supervisory program. The effectiveness of the program can be determined by a comparison of the results of an initial overview of the situation with the facts revealed by a resurvey at some subsequent time. Even if the supervisor finds it inexpedient to make a quantitative experimental study of the results of his supervision, the use of survey technics such as those that have been described will give him much more complete and accurate information regarding instruction than can be secured by a general impression method based on vague and indefinite reactions. These supervisory devices must be refined and improved; others must be developed to analyze other aspects of teaching.

Many of these devices may be used directly as a part of a self-survey program by teachers. The scales for rating teaching and the descriptions of levels of teaching may be used by teachers to appraise their teaching and to analyze work at higher levels. If teachers sense the true functions of supervision, they will be glad to cooperate in a study of their difficulties and of methods of locating their causes. The cooperative approach to the study and improvement of teaching insures the proper relationship between supervisor and teacher. The study of objective data concerning the characteristics of lessons and pupils makes the discussions impersonal and professional.

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CHAPTER VIII

CURRICULUM AND COURSE-OF-STUDY MAKING AS FACTORS IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION[1]

CURRICULUM MAKING, *a challenge to educational philosophy and research*—The rich content of the present-day curriculum demands not only an understanding of the relationships of the child, the curriculum, and society, but it demands on the part of those making a course of study thorough knowledge and appreciation of the varied subject-matter needed by the individual if he is to become an intelligent interpreter of the world in which he lives.

From the point of view of supervision, the course of study is the point of attack upon subject-matter, method, technic, and device for the determination of pupil achievement and of the creative leadership and growth of the supervisor. All these accomplishments must be realized in relation to curriculum content.

The committee developing such a curriculum faces the need for acceptance of a common educational philosophy and for application of a common educational psychology. Discussions essential to reaching such agreements mean an open-minded and critical attitude toward the whole problem of education.

Since to supervision belongs the responsibility of assuming a large part of the leadership in making the course of study, much is demanded in the knowledge of its content, the relation of subject-matter and method, the application of a sound educational psychology, and the social and intellectual values to be acquired through its use. One of the potent influences in developing supervision comes through an acceptance of such a challenge as these demands present, and through the course of training that such an experience affords the supervisor.

Many social changes now under way are either the direct or indirect outcomes of education. Social changes have brought about changes in the curriculum, but the curriculum quite as frequently has been a factor in progressive social change. For example, during the last "educational" generation the general level of achievement has been raised. There have been opportunities for a greater use and application of intelligence, and for developing a common understanding.

This conception of the interaction between the curriculum and social change places a great responsibility upon those engaged in curriculum making.

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[1] *Definitions*—For convenience and clarity the following definitions are accepted in this discussion:

A *course of study* is an orderly arrangement of the kind, amount, and order of material selected in any particular field of knowledge; as English, general science, or algebra. It is intended to guide the teacher in his attempts at aiding pupils in learning.

A *curriculum* is the orderly arrangement of courses for different pupils or groups of pupils through a number of years, for the purpose of attaining a definite goal; for example, college preparatory curriculum or commercial curriculum.

These demands must unavoidably furnish the impetus to all participants to study and investigation. Such study and investigation result in a richer contribution to the making of a course of study, and also in the intellectual and professional growth of those participating.

Educational philosophies which have guided in programs of curriculum making—A resumé of statements indicative of the educational philosophies which have guided in curriculum making is included in Cocking's *Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools.*[1] Among the statements which stand out as guiding principles in the development of a program of curriculum making are: "Self-activity is fundamental to learning," "The universal interdependence of man is basic for education," "Education serves both proximate and ultimate ends," "The welfare of society demands the optimum development of the individual," "It is the duty of the school to adjust itself to social progress."

Many more quotations might be given, but all indicate the demand felt by school administrators that the individual must be educated to meet the needs of our changing social order.

The function of the course of study—The course of study has these six more or less distinct functions:

1. To define objectives and to set up goals.

This means defining objectively measurable accomplishments at each step of the school curriculum, so that teacher, pupil, and parent may see clearly what is expected, and may move intelligently toward its accomplishment. Stated another way, it means providing standards with respect to knowledges, skills, habits, and attitudes for a particular grade, with provision for individual differences with respect to such standards.

2. To outline the activities necessary to achieve the goals which are set up.

The course of study should supply the content or make specific references to its source. It should provide help in the organization of the subject-matter in a particular subject for a particular grade; and it should also offer help in the differentiation of activities for pupils of different levels of ability. It should provide descriptions of activities, demonstration lessons, and units of work, so that the teacher may orient himself to the immediate problems of his grade. It should furnish the teacher with an adequate viewpoint with regard to the policies of the local school system with relation to the various subjects of study.

3. To stimulate the teacher to an appreciation of the importance of methods of procedure in a particular subject and a particular grade.

Some courses of study also provide a brief analysis of the learning processes with relation to a particular subject and grade. Others give aid in adapting or suiting teaching to the needs of a given community, or offer suggestions for motivating the work and outline technics for carrying it on.

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[1] Cocking, Walter D., *Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools,* Contributions to Education, No. 329. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

4. To articulate the work throughout the school system, thus insuring progressive growth on the part of pupils from year to year.

To articulate the work in (1) the different schools, (2) the different subjects, and (3) the different grade levels of the same subjects is a function of courses of study. They indicate the sequence of experiences in which pupils should be engaged, thus insuring progressive growth on the part of pupils from year to year. Were there no printed guides for teachers, sporadic and ineffective teaching and serious omissions and overlappings in instructional units and materials might occur.

According to one superintendent of schools, courses of study coordinate the work of a school system in such a way that one may feel fairly certain of the work that is done in each grade from the kindergarten through the high school, and know that each grade prepares the field for the work of the following year.

5. To serve as a stimulus to creative activity upon the part of the teacher, so that he may more successfully lead his pupils into situations of constructive living together.

Inspiration and stimulation of initiative and creative ability should come to teachers working with the right kind of course of study.

6. To provide pertinent and specific references and bibliography relative to a particular subject in a particular grade.

The major purposes of curriculum revision—Among the purposes of curriculum revision given by twenty superintendents of schools are these:

1. To make the classroom teacher alive to changing philosophies of education and conscious of the new knowledge regarding methods and materials which is coming from educational laboratories, research agencies, and classroom experience.

Teacher growth is one of the chief objectives of curriculum revision. Superintendents of schools are unanimous in reporting that the intellectual life of those who participate in curriculum revision is rekindled—a keener professional attitude is developed. Curriculum revision is distinctly a supervisory procedure in the training of teachers.

2. To keep the materials of instruction abreast of the changes in civilization and in local environment.

The curriculum must provide for an ever-changing civilization and the needs of life affected thereby. It must get rid of the deadwood by frequent pruning, and introduce gradually newer materials justified by our changing civilization.

3. To keep teachers in a thoughtful attitude toward the changes in civilization.

This in turn stimulates the teacher to an appreciation that the curriculum is not static, but mobile and dynamic. Curriculum revision helps to keep educational procedure in harmony with the changing conception of education. It makes the teaching force into a group of students interested in modern movements and methods.

4. To improve the methods of instruction.

Research and experimentation are constantly giving more exact information as to the best methods of teaching a particular subject to children of varying ages and abilities. As this information accumulates, curriculum revision is made necessary.

5. To adapt the teaching materials to changes in the school population—i. e., changes in both pupils and teachers.

Student populations change, and materials of instruction must be adapted to various groups of students. Furthermore, the specific needs and abilities of pupils are coming to be revealed by more and more scientifically accurate diagnostic tests. Better trained teachers are capable of assuming more initiative and of carrying on more highly technical work.

The content of the curriculum—Varying opinions have been given by educators from time to time as to just what should be the content of the curriculum, and much has been said about a "common core," for all pupils, with degrees and kinds of specialization for advancing groups. All seem to be agreed that "a curriculum can be built which has large social adult values, appeals to the interests of children, is suited to their growth wants, and at the same time is sufficiently differentiated to meet the needs of pupils of varying levels of ability." [1]

The curriculum must be based on a sound psychology; it must show a fundamental philosophy at work; and it should indicate to the teacher and to the supervisor the right uses to be made of teaching materials.

The Process of Making a Course of Study

Course-of-study making includes at least these seven steps: (1) statement of objectives, (2) development of activity units—selection of subject-matter, (3) grade-placement of content, (4) differentiation of materials, (5) suggestions as to methods of teaching, (6) steps to be followed in putting the new course of study into use, and (7) measurement of results. It is important to consider the allocation of the various parts of the course-of-study program to the appropriate officers. In a local program for building courses of study, these functions should be specifically allocated among different school officers and teachers with definite responsibility.

Since this chapter deals with the improvement of supervision through curriculum and course-of-study making, descriptions of the administrative set-up are omitted, but through these descriptions the various functions of participants may be seen.

The making of a course of study should be the cooperative work of teaching, supervisory, and administrative groups. It should also make use of expert opinion through consultation.

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[1] *Keeping Pace With the Advancing Curriculum*, Research Bulletin, Vol. III, Nos. 4 and 5, p. 118. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1925.

The work of the teacher in building a course of study—The teacher, with the assistance of principals and supervisors, and in consultation with leading authorities, selects subject-matter and aids in evaluating teaching materials and books. He aids in originating certain units of work; in trying out new units in the classroom; in discovering special interests and aptitudes of children; in making local applications of certain subject-matter; in helping determine grade-placement of materials; and in developing differentiated materials for particular groups of pupils of varying levels of ability. Teachers are in better position to see the needs and interests of children as these develop day by day than some person who is removed from the classroom. Teachers are in a position to secure experimental evidence on the desirability, validity, and reliability of the goals, procedures, and measures of outcomes set up in the course of study. The teacher furnishes detailed and specific information which makes the course of study practical.

Teachers who have participated in building a course of study come to realize that the task is as big as life itself. Their lack of knowledge in solving the problems which arise motivates them to further study and to seek the aid of specialists and scientific experimentation. Superintendents of schools generally agree that: "More intelligent and purposeful teaching is the result of teacher participation in course-of-study revision." Experimentation guided by supervision stimulates the teacher in creating ways and means of reaching such desired ends as must be attained through the varied activities which are a part of all course-of-study making.

Teacher growth, through a closer, more concrete study of the child, of educational philosophy, educational sociology, and educational psychology, results from participation in curriculum revision.

On the whole, teachers are more sympathetic toward a course in the making of which they or their representatives have had a part. They are more concerned in its success, and there is more general participation in an intelligent use of the new course of study, because it is understood and appreciated. According to one superintendent of schools, it matters little what the educational philosophy of the superior officers of a school system may happen to be, if that philosophy cannot be made part of the working technic of the classroom teacher. To have the consumers of the course of study understand its production is highly important.

In the past, the procedure was for somebody to write a course of study, and then, over a period of years, the teacher was supposed to use it and find out what it was all about. Now, teachers by their participation in the making of the course of study are at least familiar with it by the time it is constructed, and many of them have made distinct contributions to it.

The work of the principal in building a course of study—The principal should work with teachers in interpreting and adapting the course of study to local situations. He should cooperate with teachers in selecting teaching materials; he should interpret building problems; he should provide opportunity for and stimulate participation in building projects; he should work with the general supervisor in guiding in the development of the course of study in the classroom, in selecting contributing teachers, and in analyzing content and methods which are being developed; and he must assume the responsibility of coordinating and integrating all activities of his teachers in course-of-study and curriculum making.

Often the principal will critically evaluate the course of study. He may even suggest material modifications in terms of his local situation.

The principal should be expert in the problems involved in administering the course of study. To illustrate, the elementary school principal should have a general knowledge of all elementary subjects, general aims of elementary education, objectives of a particular subject for all grades, and administrative ability in getting his teachers organized for group work and in seeing that their recommendations relative to the improvement of the course of study are in proper form.

The work of the special supervisor in building a course of study—The special supervisor is, or should be, a specialist in his subject-matter and activities. His work in course-of-study making is that of selecting the materials in his subject-matter field which promise greatest educational growth to pupils. He should work with the general supervisor in establishing correlations among related subject matters; in aiding in the selection of contributing teachers in his special field; and in aiding in the selection of teaching materials. He is a leader and stimulator of teachers, bringing the findings of research to their aid.

The work of the general supervisor in course-of-study building—The work of general supervisors having supervision of all subjects is that of guiding in the development of courses of study in the classroom; of cooperating with the principal in the selection of contributing teachers; of analyzing content and method in the process of development; of analyzing specific problems and comparative results in a school system; and of capitalizing local results for distribution as a means of assistance and inspiration to all teachers. The superintendent of schools must hold the general supervisor responsible for a large share of the leadership in building courses of study, both in personal creative contribution and in inspiring and developing the creative contributions of teachers. Articulation and integration are the particular duties of the general supervisor, rather than those of the special supervisor.

Mechanical "set-ups" for making curriculum building continuous—If curriculum building is really to function as a supervisory process, it must be more or less continuous. Among the means reported by twenty-five superintendents of schools [1] for making curriculum revision continuous are these:

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[1] Included in the selected group of school systems questioned by the Supervision Commission on this point were the following: Baltimore, Md.; Berkeley, Calif.; Birmingham, Ala.; Bristow, Okla.; Bronxville, N. Y.; Denver, Colo.; Detroit, Mich.; Eau Claire, Wis.; Grand Junction, Colo.; Hamtramck, Mich.; Kansas City, Mo.; La Crosse, Wis.: Lincoln, Neb.; Long Beach, Calif.; Los Angeles, Calif.; Lynn, Mass.; Mesa, Ariz.; Mitchell, S. D.; Oakland, Calif.; Raleigh, N. C.; Schenectady, N. Y.; Sioux City, Iowa; Stoughton, Mass.; Wellesley, Mass.; and West Allis, Wis.

1. Permanent curriculum committees:

To illustrate, one city reports that work committees are appointed by the chairman of the standing committee to do definite pieces of work. This work must be accepted by a standing committee before it finally becomes a part of a course of study.

Another city reports two general curriculum committees, elementary and high-school. The assistant superintendent is chairman of the former; and the associate superintendent, of the latter. Each of these general committees is composed of several subcommittees, one for each subject. A principal or supervisor is chairman of each subcommittee in the elementary group. The primary supervisor is vice chairman of the general elementary committee and is ex-officio of all subcommittees. Some changes in personnel are made each year but, as a rule, the chairman and the majority of the members of each committee serve several years.

In Oakland, Calif., curriculum revision committees are continued permanently, and after the publication of a course, the committee is assigned the task of evaluation and collection of data looking toward revision, which is usually accomplished after the course has been in effect four years.

According to the director of curriculum development in the Oakland public schools, over 100 course-of-study bulletins are published, which means that some 25 courses are revised for publication annually. In addition, as many more are in the process of revision in tentative form.

2. Research department constantly checks up on local education shortages.
3. Department of curriculum revision with full-time director.
4. Supervisors head local curriculum revision work.

Supervisors and heads of departments in direct contact with teachers and pupils continuously gather data for curriculum revision. To illustrate, in Hamtramck, Mich., supervisors are supposed to spend at least one-third of their time on research. Records are kept of units or activities developed in individual classrooms.

5. A curriculum expert is retained for lectures and manuscript consultation.
6. Survey tests given at regular intervals.

Standarized tests and course-of-study tests made by local committees of teachers and supervisors, often working under the direction of an assistant superintendent of schools, show strength and weakness of present courses.

7. Service sheets circulated among all teachers recommending changes and suggestions to be added each semester.
8. Curriculum bulletins containing suggestions for using the new courses of study, descriptions of projects developed by building or individual teachers, and reports written by individual teachers illustrating units of work covered by certain sections of the course of study.

In some school systems, these reports are not printed, but are on file in the school administration building. For example, in the office of the director of elementary education of some school systems, there is a permanent file, known as "pupil activities." Each teacher who carries out a successful unit of work in any subject or, preferably, a unit of work involving the unification of many subjects, is encouraged to write a description of his procedure, including outcomes, significant features, and helpful bibliography.

According to one local director of elementary education, the teachers consider this method one of the most helpful supervisory agencies. She reports that more than a hundred such descriptions have been added to the file during the last semester, covering practically all the school subjects. The services of a photographer are available and when outstanding activities are in progress photographs are secured and placed on file for future use. In this way, good methods of procedure and helpful information are available at all times to the inexperienced and ambitious teacher. Course-of-study committees have access at any time to these files and can find, ready for use, illustrations of any particular type of work which they may wish to include in courses of study.

9. Courses are discussed and interpreted at supervisors' meetings and at principals' meetings.

10. Staff of consultants work as need arises.

11. Professional improvement courses, dealing with various phases of the curriculum, are offered under the supervision of various members of the local public school staff or outside experts.

12. Research studies, made by teachers with the advice of supervisors or members of the research department, contribute to the development of a teacher-attitude toward curriculum problems that is critical, open-minded, and cooperative.

Values derived from having consultants such as subject-matter specialists and general curriculum advisers aid local curriculum committees—Among the values mentioned by twenty-five city superintendents of school systems which have recently been engaged in curriculum revision[1] are these:

1. Subject-matter specialists can give the local staff expert information gained from investigations and from a deep study of their subjects. They can pass upon the accuracy and intrinsic worth of matter proposed for inclusion. The subject-matter specialist contributes from his knowledge of the content, methods, and values pertaining to his field. It is not possible for teachers and principals, or even supervisors, to become sufficiently specialized for the most technical phases of curriculum construction and research.

Outside specialists are more likely to bring in ideas from a broader field because their contacts are greater; and they are not likely to be influenced by local prejudice.

2. General curriculum advisers emphasize the need of a well thought out philosophy of education, general educational objectives, and the need for selecting such activities as will realize these objectives. They often bring to the problem a technic of procedure which is of value. General advisers aid further in bringing all the special points of view into synthesis. The result is better balanced courses of study, better correlation and articulation.

Among the values resulting from the help which both outside subject-matter specialists and general curriculum advisers give are these:

a. Inspiration and stimulus to local staff members, which result in their broader vision of the whole problem.
b. Guidance and aid through discussions with committees of problems that arise.

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[1] See page 181 for a list of these school systems.

c. Guidance and direction in carrying on local research studies.
d. Review and constructive criticism of manuscript.

Specialists throw the searchlight of constructive criticism on the underlying principles of the course and upon the materials that are used. The critical appraisal of persons not too close to the project brings into proper perspective the school system as a whole, the relationship of a particular course of study to the entire curriculum, and one unit to the others included in a course of study.

Why teachers, principals, supervisors, and curriculum specialists should cooperate in making a course of study—Among the reasons offered by twenty-five superintendents of city school systems where extensive course-of-study revision has been carried on [1] are these:

1. To bring all groups in contact with modern movements of education.
2. To insure unity of educational effort and mutual professional stimulus to growth.
3. To bring about a better understanding of each other's problems and viewpoints. To secure a reflection of the problems and experiences in the teaching-learning situation from all phases of the school organization.

   Each has something to contribute that can supplement and need not duplicate the work of the others. Better and broader curriculums result from the efforts of people with various viewpoints, training, and experience. When curriculum revision is made a cooperative enterprise, it allows each type of worker to make the contributions he is best fitted to make, and it divides the work and responsibilities.
4. To insure greater success of the course when it is installed. The active cooperation of representatives from all groups makes for better integration of the whole school system and for a more whole-hearted acceptance of the results of curriculum revision.

Curriculum and Course-of-Study Building—A Teacher-Training and Supervisory Activity

The attention of school administrators has been definitely concentrated on curriculum making for the past few years. No clearer results of the effects of curriculum making on the improvement of instruction and supervision can be found anywhere than in the case studies submitted by leading cities engaged in this work.

Among the cities reporting definite activities which have resulted in such improvement are Minneapolis, Minn.; Denver, Colo.; Oakland, Calif.; Berkeley, Calif.; Springfield, Mass.; Bronxville, N. Y.; St. Cloud, Minn.; Detroit, Mich.; and Raleigh, N. C.

I. Social Studies in Minneapolis

Minneapolis submitted the following outline [2] of a survey of observable teacher-pupil activities in teaching the social studies:

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[1] See page 181 for a list of these school systems.

[2] Reported by Prudence Cutright, Department of Instructional Research, Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.

A. Purpose of the Survey:

To gain some objective notion of current practice. It involved (1) development of survey instruments, (2) training period for the elementary school principals who were to assist in the program, (3) reporting of 500 classroom observations. Elementary school principals made all classroom observations. The results of the survey were compiled and interpreted. A report was made to the principal, who in turn presented the materials to teachers.

B. Reports of the survey led to publication of supervisory bulletins.

The topics of these bulletins had their origin in the needs revealed by the survey of instruction. This series of bulletins was made the basis of building meetings for teachers. The following list suggests the nature of the curriculum problems discovered in the survey:

1. Tests and Measurements for Social Sciences
2. Values of Excursions in the Social Studies
3. Difficulties in Teaching the Social Studies
4. The Use of Maps in the Teaching of Geography
5. The Use of Pictures in the Teaching of Geography
6. Science and the Social Studies
7. The Value of Current Events in a Social Science Program.

C. Survey of Visual Education Materials.

This survey led to recommendation for additional materials.

D. Lectures on Social Studies by Leading Authorities.

E. Reviews of Worthwhile Books and Periodicals on Social Studies.

F. Illustrative Lessons

These were designed to illustrate points of view in the new curriculum, teaching technics, and revised materials.

Such a program of investigation as is outlined above must result in a free and full interchange of ideas and opinions based on intelligent observation of classroom practices.

II. Denver's Appraisal Program[1]

The Denver school system reports that, during the second semester of the school year 1927-1928, an appraisal program involving the cooperation of 750 teachers was carried on. Mimeographed reports summarizing the results of the appraisal have been prepared for all subjects. Further revision in the different courses of study will be based on the teachers' criticisms thus obtained. Many of the courses of study have been revised in the light of "try-out experience" through using mimeographed bulletins covering the necessary revisions. Denver's present plan of curriculum work includes the development of some new procedures in curriculum making which give promise of valuable results. The first part of the work involves the rating of the specific objectives as to divisional placement and relative importance for three levels of ability. In the case of English, this part of the work is nearing completion. Work has been begun in social science, science, and mathematics. A similar method of attack will probably be used for all subject-matter fields.

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[1] Prepared for the Supervision Commission of the Department of Superintendence by Arthur K. Loomis, Director of Curriculum Department, Denver Public Schools.

The second part of the work involves extensive experiments with the organization of learning units. This period of experimentation may extend over several years. As the results of the experiment become available, they will provide the basis for revision in the courses of study.

In no city reporting has an appraisal program been more carefully planned than in Denver.

III. Courses of Study as Factors in Supervision in Oakland, California[1]

In the Oakland public schools, supervision has been defined as the procedure whereby the teacher is helped to develop his plan of work, to execute it effectively, and to evaluate it. Usually, such supervision is thought of as a cooperative enterprise undertaken by principal, supervisor, and teacher. There are, however, other factors than these personal contacts which may serve as important means in the supervision program. For example, a teacher might be helped to execute a plan of work by surrounding himself with a wealth of instructional material. Freedom of planning would result, but the economic efficiency of such a program might be subject to question. Of all the means of supervision, other than personal contact, the course of study is the most effective. It is the official statement of the instructional program, issued from the office of the superintendent of schools and approved by the board of education.

The course of study is a handbook for the teacher. Its function is to bring together in such form that it will be a convenient reference the following types of material:

1. A clear statement of objectives, both general and specific.
2. Suggestions as to means of attaining these objectives—stated in terms of activities and content materials.
3. Aids for the teacher. These aids will vary with the subject and the nature of the course. Examples are:
    - a. Suggestions for correlations between subjects.
    - b. Definite suggestions for work dealing with materials and topics of local interest.
    - c. Illustrative and type lessons given.
    - d. Suggested standards for checking results of teaching (i. e., standard tests, etc.)
    - e. Reference to proper use of maps, illustrative materials, etc.
    - f. Use made of scientific studies in determining methods and materials.
    - g. References, basic and supplemental, for children's use.
    - h. References:
        - 1). To experiments, magazines, and books treating of theory and method.
        - 2). Subject-matter references for the teacher.[2]

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[1] Statement prepared for the Supervision Commission of the Department of Superintendence by Richard E. Rutledge, Director, Bureau of Curriculum Development, Research and Guidance, Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, Calif.

[2] *Handbook for Course of Study Committees*, Oakland Public Schools, June, 1928, p. 26.

Course-of-study construction in Oakland, Calif., is a continuous cooperative enterprise engaged in jointly by teachers, principals, and supervisors, with the occasional assistance of outside specialists. Through service on curriculum committees, teachers become contributors to the program of supervision, since such committees not only prepare courses but serve as permanent critics of the materials after publication. Such a conception of what the course of study should be and how it should be developed makes evident the importance of this phase of professional activity as a factor in supervision.

The course of study is rich in suggestions as to possible plans of work and as to varied media for carrying out these plans. The teacher *is helped to develop his own plan,* not required to conform to a uniform procedure.

The course of study is an effective means of introducing entirely new procedures. For example, the primary program was arranged by subjects, each with a definite time allotment. The revised course of study appeared as an activities curriculum with subject time allotment waived for teachers desiring to follow the new plan; the basic content material was also arranged by subject for the benefit of those teachers who felt that better results could be accomplished by traditional methods.

Courses of study not only help teachers to develop plans of work, but they are also rich in suggestions which aid in the execution of these plans. Teachers should expect to find in the course of study definite suggestions for work dealing with materials of local interest, illustrative and type lessons, reference to the proper use of maps and other visual aids, and suggested reading material for both teacher and pupil.

Effective teaching implies continuous evaluation. This phase of supervision should not be neglected in courses of study. Every statement of objectives and the means of attaining them should be accompanied by a description of methods of evaluating the progress of the child toward the accepted objectives. Among such methods of evaluation are the utilization of standardized tests, directions for the construction and use of informal tests together with examples of teacher-made measuring instruments and check lists, and rating scales for aid in estimating pupil growth in those functions for which objective measuring instruments have not been devised.

In conclusion, mention should be made of the relationship which should exist between course-of-study development and other agencies of supervision. Cooperative supervision implies the constant joint study by teacher, principal, and special supervisor of the problem of the improvement of instruction. From these conferences will come a mutual understanding of the present values and of desirable changes in courses of study. Through participation in course-of-study construction, each will come to appreciate the contribution of the others to the educational plan, and the progress of the school will be unified through the union of supervision and the development of the course of study.

IV. Building a Spelling Course in Berkeley[1]

A bulletin concerned with making a course of study in spelling in Berkeley, Calif., illustrates a method of teacher contribution to a course of study under the direction of supervisors.

A. General Aspects of the Spelling Situation:

1. The public demands better spelling ability.
2. Educators are trying to bring scientific investigation in this field to a higher degree of efficiency. The literature on the subject is abundant.
3. Expert opinion based upon tests seems to prove that better results are obtained when the lesson is taught in school than when the child studies it at home.
4. There is greater economy of time in the former method, as the child left to his own devices will accomplish less than when held to close concentration by the demands of the teacher.
5. Motivated drill for a short period will produce better results than prolonged effort with inattention.
6. Errors in spelling are often due to committing the same characteristic blunder; e. g.:
   - a. Putting in extra letter.
   - b. Ending words with *e*, etc.
7. Detecting the particular difficulty, and concentrating attention upon that will contribute toward economy of effort.
8. Difficulties increase in accordance with increase in prescribed elements. Experiment indicates that the first, second, and last letters are more often recalled correctly; the two letters before the last seem to present most difficulty.
9. Disability in spelling is not necessarily a mark of poor intelligence. To differentiate as to cause of disability calls for skill in psychology; but each teacher should exhaust his own resources in improvement before giving up a case as hopeless.

B. Aims in the Teaching of Spelling:

1. Direct:
   - a. Correct and automatic spelling of words in written work
   - b. Correct pronunciation
   - c. Clear enunciation
   - d. A knowledge of the meaning of words
   - e. A knowledge of the use of words
   - f. A knowledge of how to use the dictionary.

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[1] Submitted by: Ruby Minor, Director of Kindergarten and Elementary Education, Public Schools, Berkeley, Calif.

2. Indirect (implied):
    - a. The habit of critically observing the spelling of new words found in reading.
    - b. The habit of noticing wherein words differ slightly from the expected image of same.
    - c. The habit of hesitation to write a word when in doubt regarding its proper spelling.
    - d. The habit of taking a final glance at a word just written to see if it conforms to the intention of the writer, and seems correct.
3. Dependent upon:
    - a. The association of certain arbitrary symbols obtained through one or more sense channels.
    - b. The subsequent recall of those symbols in a conventional order.
    - c. The expression of this ordered group of symbols by some form of motor activity.

C. Suggested Steps in Teaching Spelling:

Write one of the new words on the blackboard and teach it in accordance with the following plan. Then erase it and write the next word, teaching it in the same way. Continue in this way throughout the list.

1. While writing the word, pronounce it distinctly.
2. Develop the meaning orally either by calling for a sentence using the word or by giving its definition.
3. Divide the word into syllables. Call on pupils to spell orally by syllables. Have them indicate what part of the word presents difficulties, or whether the word contains parts they already know.
    - a. Main difficulties:
        - Obscure or difficult sounds
        - Silent letters
        - Middle and last syllables.
4. Have pupils write the word on practice paper several times, spelling it softly as they write.
5. Allow the class a moment in which to look at the word again, and then have them close their eyes and try to visualize it, or use any other device of a similar nature. Have considerable repetition, both oral and written.
6. Be sure that every child gets correct aural and visual percepts of every word.

After the new words of the day's lesson have been studied in this way, write on the blackboard the new words and several review words. Allow the class three or four minutes for studying independently the whole list, suggesting that each pupil emphasize the words he thinks most difficult. This time should be limited so that every pupil will attend vigorously and intensively. Call upon pupils individually and in concert to spell the whole list without looking at the board. Refer them to the board again when they hesitate.

Erase all words from the blackboard and dictate to the class, using each word in a sentence first, then pronouncing it distinctly alone.

D. How to Secure Interest in the Lesson:

1. Words should be selected from real life situations that are meaningful to the child.
    a. The spelling book should serve as a guide to the teacher and as a check to the pupil, but should not be slavishly followed in assigning lessons.
2. Pupils should help to make the spelling lists.
3. Develop a spelling consciousness or ability to detect errors.
4. Develop a spelling conscience which will:
    a. Cause child to be careful in spelling.
    b. Cause child to check his work that spelling errors may be corrected.

E. Important Results of Experimentation:

1. Drill in spelling is necessary and should be subject to the laws of learning as in other subjects:
    a. All lessons should be motivated:
        1). Realization of the need of correct spelling.
        2). Elimination of unnecessary words, and emphasis upon individual spelling difficulties.
        3). Satisfaction which comes from the completion of a task.
        4). Devices such as graphs, booklets, and charts, which emphasize competition with one's own best record.
    b. The spelling habit should be learned in the way that it is to function in life:
        1). Written spelling should receive more emphasis than oral work.
        2). Words should be written as wholes rather than divided into syllables; although seeing and pronouncing syllables should receive attention during study.
        3). Words should be used in sentences, and should be so written by the child.
        4). Child should become accustomed to use of dictionary as a part of the regular spelling lesson.
        5). The pupil will remember best that which is:
            a). Vividly presented
            b). Frequently repeated with attention
            c). Reviewed at correctly timed intervals
            d). Presented in a variety of ways.
2. Fixing the correct spelling habit is more important than learning to spell by rules, although stimulating an interest in rules may lead to an interest in words, if curiosity and play instinct are used.
3. Study supervised by the teacher is more effective than unsupervised study.

4. Writing the difficult parts of a word in colors is of doubtful value, because it is impossible to select the parts of a word that will cause difficulty to all pupils.
5. Since "learning is connecting" the teacher should see that right connections are made in learning the spelling of words.
6. Fifteen minutes a day may be profitably given to spelling.
7. Two new words daily may be given in grades 1 and 2; and from three to five new words in grades 3 to 6 inclusive.

F. Methods of Teaching:

1. *The incidental method:*

    a. Incidental teaching is good to the extent that pupils see the relation of spelling to every other subject, and that words selected from other subjects have meaning; but this method should not be used exclusively, as it leaves the selection and fixation of words too much to individual opinion and chance. Furthermore, it makes attentive repetition and systematic review very difficult.

2. *The test-drill method:*

    a. By using a graded list of words, the teacher tests her class to ascertain the pupils who need drill and the words which have caused the difficulty. By this process of elimination, both teacher and pupils realize the particular words that must be given special attention.
    b. This method has the advantage of saving time which might be devoted to useless drill, and makes the spelling lesson an individual matter, freeing the pupil when the spelling is mastered, for a more needed work.
    c. The method should not be followed exclusively, as the children need help in *learning the meaning* and *acquiring a mastery of the use in speech* of the words which they may know how to spell.
    d. The teacher who uses this method should remember that the teaching of spelling has other associated values which are as important as teaching the automatic response of the order of the letters.
    e. Frequent reviews in which all of the class participate and which test the meaning and use of words as well as the spelling will make this method more effective.

3. *The teaching-study method:*

    a. Emphasis here is upon the joint activity of teacher and pupils; upon teaching and studying rather than upon test and drill.
    b. The teacher makes it her responsibility to see that *pupils are conscious* of correct pronunciation, accent, meaning, use of word, and spelling of word.
    c. Teacher writes words on board, using each word in sentence. She then calls attention to each word, giving accurate pronunciation with correct value to each syllable.
    d. Children pronounce word; care is taken to have superior pupils pronounce word first so that class will hear only correct impressions.
    e. The word is used in sentences by pupils to make sure that they have an understanding of its meaning and facility in its use. The aim is not abstract definition. It is practical use.

f. Pupils then study the words, trying to discover the difficulties and devoting time to those difficulties. They may close eyes and try to recall words in clear mental images, or try to write words without looking, being careful to check immediately with correct form.

g. Words are erased and dictated to pupils. They write the words and then check them carefully as words are spelled aloud by a pupil whose paper is correct.

h. Each pupil notes his mistakes and writes the *correct* form of the same word on a special list for review.

i. All words are reviewed next day and at definitely increasing intervals thereafter.

j. This method is based upon sound psychological principles, but there is some danger that individual differences may not receive sufficient attention and that superior pupils will waste time on work already mastered.

4. *The content-dictation method:*

a. This method is designed to combine the best features of all the other methods, but it is doubtful if this has been accomplished.

b. A few new words are presented in each new lesson in a paragraph supposed to be within the comprehension of the child.

c. New words are so presented as to make a vivid initial impression, and so that the child will understand their meaning and use.

d. Provision is made for repetition and drill.

e. The dictated paragraph requires the use of the word in writing, thus giving from the first a correct contextual impression.

f. All of the advantages of the other methods may be applied to this method; but it is subject to some objections. Any ready-made series of paragraphs must be necessarily somewhat mechanical and cannot be universally significant.

G. Suggestions for Teachers:

1. Teachers should be familiar with the latest scientific results concerning spelling, and from these results derive a procedure suited to their needs.

2. The State Text is the guide for the Berkeley Schools. The Children's Preface is very important. Pupils should be guided in its use. This text should be supplemented by other lists. Teachers should have a definite standard for what constitutes a good text in order to overcome the limitations of any text.

a. Does it present the words that a child needs and uses now and will need and use very soon?

b. Is the material of the text so arranged that it lends itself to the instruction, inspiration, and information of the child?

c. Has the author provided drill for the purpose of making habitual the exact reproduction of the order of the letters in the word by the child whenever he has to write it?

d. Does the book make wise and helpful use of phonetic principles and devices?

e. Does the book make sufficient use of similarities and contrasts in the form and meaning of words to stimulate thinking by the child?

3. The teacher should be familiar with special lists and learn how to use them to advantage.

    a. One Hundred Spelling Demons. See: Jones, Franklin, *Concrete Investigation of the Material of English Spelling.* Vermillion, University of South Dakota, 1915.
    b. A Suggested Minimal Spelling List. See: Pryor, H. C., *Sixteenth Yearbook,* National Society for the Study of Education, pp. 73-84. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Company, 1917.
    c. Ayres' Spelling List. See: Ayres, L. P., *The Spelling Vocabularies of Personal and Business Letters.* New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1913.

4. Pupils should be encouraged to make lists which represent their own difficulties, words in which they are especially interested and wish to add to their vocabularies, and words with certain peculiarities. A class or school list compiled during an enthusiastic study of special interest will be of great value. Why not have such lists as:

    a. Things used at school
    b. Things used at home
    c. Things made of wood, of gold, and of silver
    d. Names of vegetables, fruits, cereals
    e. Words that signify action
    f. Illustration:

        Sixth-grade pupils were making an effort to expand a simple sentence to make it more interesting: "The boy went fishing." A child offered this: "The boy went to the brook to catch some fish." The teacher asked: "What kind of brook?" There followed an animated competition in word suggestion—adjectives that could be used. This was in the language period. The list suggested was material for a meaningful spelling lesson.

    g. *A Berkeley Spelling Book* might have such lists as follows:

        1). Schools in Berkeley
        2). Building materials used in Berkeley
        3). Animals seen in Alameda County
        4). Crops raised in Alameda County
        5). Words familiar in Berkeley geography and history.

    h. A special spelling booklet should be kept, in which, at the close of the week, all spelling words are listed alphabetically. This aids the pupil by repetition, and develops the habit of reference when in doubt as to spelling. A class list may be made on filing cards for ready reference during composition writing.

H. Devices for Teaching Spelling:

1. Space will not permit descriptions of many suitable devices but the teacher should be sure that devices used are in accord with psychological principles. To illustrate:

    a. They should appeal to the child's interest.
    b. They should utilize the child's original tendencies—to play, to manipulate, and to guess.
    c. They should appeal in a variety of ways to the child's senses. He should *hear, see, pronounce,* and *write* the word.

d. They should not be so complicated as to require too much time for explanation, or so irrelevant as to cause child to lose sight of goal.
e. They should be of such a nature that every pupil performs often, and sees or hears only the correct form of the word.

I. General Recommendations:

1. Have each pupil keep an alphabetical list of troublesome individual words, and see that he reviews this frequently. Occasionally test him on this list.
2. The teacher should form a class list of troublesome words and have a review lesson with class drill on these words about once a week.
3. About every three weeks, there should be a general review of all words taught. Some form of competition is desirable, such as spelling matches or team contests, with permanent records kept of team results.
4. Beginning with Grade IV, the habit of going to the dictionary for the spelling of a word should be started, and appropriate class exercises in the use of the dictionary should be systematically given.
5. An important duty of the teacher is to develop a *spelling consciousness*. This may be done by making a pupil feel that he should always look over any written work to discover spelling errors, and that he should find out the spelling of a doubtful word from the dictionary or from some person before attempting to write it.
6. Do not waste time during the spelling period in developing the definition of a word that is fairly well understood by the class. The contextual use of the word in a variety of sentences is a good and brief method of teaching its meaning. The class period should give a large amount of varied drill in the actual spelling of the new words of the lesson.
7. The emphasis with younger children should be upon an auditory method of drill, and with older children upon a visual method, but no single method should be used exclusively. The pupil should *see, hear, pronounce,* and *write.*
8. Remember that repetition should be accompanied by attention, and that motivation lessens the need of repetition; hence the folly of requiring pupils "to write a word twenty-five times."
9. It is advisable to teach short groups of words in their natural relations.

too cold
to school
two boys

there is
all right
once again

This is true particularly of homonyms.

10. Avoid calling attention unnecessarily to the wrong form; for example, never say, "What wrong letter might be used in separate?"
11. In the conduct of spelling matches avoid the danger:
    a. Of giving the poor spellers the least drill.
    b. Of having incorrect spellings repeated too often.

12. A large percent of the time devoted to spelling should be spent on class instruction under the direction of the teacher; in other words, it should be devoted to *teaching* rather than to *testing.*
13. Words should usually be spelled in sentences, because that is the way that spelling is used.
14. We must recognize the importance of developing:
    - a. Accurate sense imagery, especially visual imagery, and motor habituation in writing the words, which finally result in automatic spelling.
    - b. A spelling consciousness, which leads the pupil to detect his own errors in spelling.
    - c. A desire for good spelling, which results in the careful use of the rules of spelling, other known forms of the words to be spelled, and the dictionary.
15. Teachers should include in the daily spelling not only common words used by the child, but also technical words which he needs to write in connection with his history, geography, arithmetic, and science.
16. If the pupil were required to spell the common words of his spoken vocabulary, it is reasonable to suppose that his written vocabulary would be increased.
17. Teachers should be familiar with the rules of spelling and select for their grade the most usable rules to be thoroughly mastered. These rules should be developed inductively. The effectiveness of rules is doubted by many educators and should be supplemented by other methods.
18. Written spelling should receive more attention than oral spelling, because a habit should be acquired in the way that it is to be used.
19. To create interest in spelling, use variety. Spelling matches are strongly recommended. These may be between pupils in the same room, or in different rooms, or in different buildings. Even parents may be challenged occasionally to match their ability with that of the pupils.
20. In oral spelling, the syllabification of words should be indicated by a slight pause after each syllable. In written spelling, words should not be separated into syllables.
21. Misspelling is often due to not having seen the word enough; or to not having perceived words in right way to cause recall. It is a good habit to combine reading and spelling occasionally. Have pupils close reader and spell certain words. Reading should leave a residuum that will contribute to better spelling.
22. Logical arrangement should be sacrificed to psychological arrangement.

increase		increase		decrease
	instead of		or	
decrease		inclose		delight

23. Secure correct sequence through:
    - a. Seeing the word
    - b. Having the letters given in proper sequence
    - c. Saying the letters in oral drill
    - d. Writing the word.
24. The real test of spelling is the ability to write on any topic of interest and spell accurately. Pupils should be graded on this basis and not entirely on marks obtained by writing a column of words "crammed" for the occasion.
25. More time should be spent on intelligent and discriminating study of spelling, and less on writing lists of words.

V. How Springfield, Mass., Developed a Course in Reading

The following section[1] illustrates one aspect of supervision at work in the development of a course of study in reading:

At the time of initiating the development of a course of study for beginning reading, little had been done in the kindergarten consciously to lead up to reading readiness. Children's experiences had not been sufficiently utilized as affording opportunity for the early lessons in reading. Certain studies were therefore initiated by the supervisor in cooperation with the reading committee.

1. A study of the experiences of children of pre-school age.

   This study was conducted in seventeen elementary schools, and resulted in an interesting report of both helpful home activities and play activities engaged in by young children before coming to school.
2. A study of school activities through which children's interests in reading were aroused, or activities which might be used as subject-matter for reading experiences.

   For a period of six weeks, teachers of the kindergarten and grade one kept a record of all activities engaged in by children which involved reading. These records were charted and later were used as suggestive material in the course of study.
3. A study was made of reading materials available at the time the work on the course of study began.

   This study involved careful examination of all textbooks in use at the time, the elimination of inferior books, and redistribution of others which were adapted to specific localities.
4. Experiments in the use of specific reading methods were conducted in selected classes.

   The teachers chosen for this experiment made contributions to the committee both in evaluating teaching procedures and the more recent materials.

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[1] Report on reading submitted by Mary O. Pottenger, Supervisor of Elementary Education, Public Schools, Springfield, Mass.

5. Original materials were developed by teachers of grade one for charts, bulletins, and types of silent reading exercises used as seat work.

Selected exercises were incorporated in the course of study and also used as illustrative material in meetings of teachers of these grades.

In September, 1928, the reading study was at the following stage of development:

1. A tentative course for beginning reading in the kindergarten and grade one was ready for distribution.
2. A tentative course for grades 2-3 was in process of development.

As a result, the supervisory program for the year 1928-1929 was as follows:

1. Teachers were selected to work on the following studies:
    a. The use of teaching materials and methods of procedure.
    b. Opportunities for reading growing out of children's experience and classroom activities. Materials developed in classroom.
    c. Methods of individualizing instruction for the purpose of remedying reading difficulties and of securing steady pupil growth.
    d. The use of phonetics in developing power in the recognition of symbols.
2. At a joint meeting of all kindergarten and first-grade teachers, the tentative course of study was distributed. The general supervisor and chairman of the English and reading committees discussed various sections of the course, and questions were raised and answered by principals and teachers.
3. Principals and teachers studied the outline and planned teaching procedures in keeping with the methods suggested.
4. Supervisor planned visits of one or two days in the various elementary schools. During these visits, the principal and supervisor together observed the teaching of reading. Later this observation was discussed, and suggestions for desirable changes were contributed.
5. Neighborhood meetings were held in sections having common problems; e. g.
    a. Studies of vocabulary building in sections having a high percentage of non-English-speaking children.
    b. Materials and procedures especially adapted to these groups.
    c. Demonstration lessons.
6. A study was made of ways of developing reading interests and of utilizing reading readiness in kindergarten groups in order that the growth in language and reading in these grades might be continuous.
7. In cooperation with the Bureau of Educational Research, vocabulary and reading tests were given as follows:
    a. All elementary children in one junior high-school district were tested. The results of these tests are being utilized in evaluating

methods outlined in the course of study for kindergarten and primary grades.

b. Elementary schools engaged in a building study of reading.

c. Classes engaged in the solution of specific problems.

Those engaged in this reading study have experimented with remedial methods for reading difficulties discovered. The results of this study have been given to all teachers as aids in interpreting reading conditions, defining reading problems, and prescribing effective remedies.

VI. Development of a Unified Social Studies Course in Springfield, Mass.

During the year 1926-1927, two curriculum committees, one for elementary geography and one for elementary history, were merged into one committee for the development of a social studies course of study.[1] The mergence of the two committees resulted from an opinion that if the child participates actually or vicariously in the activities represented in the life around him through observation, experimentation, and discussion, he is led into fields formerly designated as geography, history, and civics. Such method of attack on his surroundings inevitably carries him into many subject-matter fields more or less related. Presenting these subjects in a single unified course gives greater opportunity for many contacts and many interpretations of life about him.

From this point of view, the committee began its work. The larger committee was subdivided into committees representing the kindergarten-primary grades, and grades four, five, and six.

Following are the steps in the program of developing the course for grades four, five, and six:

1. Sections of the course were developed in classrooms representing varying social backgrounds of pupils and having teachers of superior ability.
2. A committee of teachers in whose classrooms these sections were developed, and principals, and supervisors began revision of these sections and the development of new ones.
3. After one year's work, the first form of the course of study was ready for distribution, September, 1927. (The experimental try-out was limited to eight schools. Two factors entered into confining the try-out of the course to a few schools: First, it seemed necessary to concentrate supervision to a limited field; second, the added cost of text and reference books, maps, etc., necessitated working the program out over a period of two years.)
4. After teachers had opportunity to look through the course of study, a meeting of teachers and principals was called by the general supervisor to go over the course with them.
5. A one-day visit was made in each of the eight schools every four or six weeks by the general supervisor. The principal and general supervisor

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[1] Report on social studies submitted by Evelyn T. Holston, Supervisor of Elementary Education, Public Schools, Springfield, Mass.

observed together the classroom work. After school, a meeting was held with the teachers of the building to talk over the observations of the day. Teachers presented typical classroom problems and were given suggestions by other teachers, and by principal and supervisor. The principal and the supervisor presented problems which they saw. Suggestions were made for improving the content and organization of the course, and for a more efficient use of text and reference books, maps, and pictures.

6. Near the end of the school year 1927-1928, the committee came together again to discuss ways of improving the course of study. Changes suggested in these building meetings were brought to the curriculum committee meeting for general discussion, after which more complete revision began. The work of intensive revision covered a period of six weeks, committee members being released from classroom work for curriculum work. A loose-leaf, mimeographed form was the result.
7. In September, 1928, the revised form was distributed to the eight original experimental schools, and to nine additional ones. Necessary books and other equipment were supplied to these schools.
8. The program of observation and discussion was continued during the term of September, 1928.
9. A plan of teacher visiting has been developed for the purpose of acquainting new teachers with the new course, and also those teachers who need to see the course being used in the classroom by superior teachers.
10. Problems now under consideration by all teachers participating are:
    a. Some basis for the selection of teaching units—the course at present is much too full. It is desired to keep it sufficiently full to adapt it to specific classroom situations.
    b. What selections in cases of combinations of grades?
    c. Decide on uniform plan of organization of subject-matter for varying ability groups within the grade.
    d. Develop in cooperation with the Bureau of Educational Research some method of testing pupil achievement in the subject-matter of the course.

VII. Curriculum Building in Bronxville, N. Y.[1]

When the development of goal cards was undertaken in Bronxville some three years ago, the elementary school was composed of a number of competent teachers, each a strong individualist. Each was developing a rich, social life for the children of his group, but was conscious of a lack of continuity from group to group, with occasional duplications of material or occasional gaps. Thoroughly convinced that one of the main obligations of the modern school is to provide rich opportunities for social living, it was felt that such an activity program must go hand in hand with careful measurement of academic products. To accomplish this most fully, a revision of the curriculum in the light of these two objectives was felt to be necessary.

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[1] As reported to the Supervision Commission of the Department of Superintendence by Willard W. Beatty, Superintendent of Schools, Bronxville, N. Y.

The superintendent of schools and his teaching staff determined to disregard former syllabi and traditional grade placement of materials and endeavor by every means at their disposal to discover justifiable requirements for mastery learning, and desirable goals for social living. Being definitely committed to the policy of individual mastery upon the part of every pupil, the aim of their course-of-study building became the determination of those habits, skills, and abilities which they could justifiably expect each and every child to master. So far as possible, they also sought a means of measuring the successful adaptation of each individual to these objectives. The schools were divided into committees for the study of the objectives of each subject in two successive grades. That is, there was an arithmetic committee for the first and second grades, one for the third and fourth grades, and one for the fifth and sixth; similarly, with oral and written English, reading, social studies, and life science. In addition to being committed to individual mastery of habits and skills, this faculty was also committed to the development of an activity program in which learning was stimulated by rich social experiences, participated in by groups of children. The teachers believed that these experiences should possess educational value in themselves and, in addition, stimulate a desire for mastery of the basic habits and skills. It was therefore the aim of the Bronxville course-of-study committees to outline for each grade, objectives which would tend to stimulate group activities of a desirable nature, yet so expressed that each goal represented a measurable achievement.

Early in the curriculum conferences, committees with practical unanimity declared for step-by-step mastery of given habits and skills throughout the grades in contrast to the cycle approach. This naturally led to a decrease in the variety of academic learnings assigned to the early grades, allowing more time for enriched social experiences, contributing to mastery of the fewer skills which are emphasized. Many arithmetical experiences are provided, simple rote counting is expected, but no fact learning of arithmetical combinations is included in the first-grade course of study. Second-grade arithmetic is concerned with the mastery of the addition facts and the use of these facts in column addition. Subtraction does not appear until the third grade. A great deal of emphasis is placed upon reading in the first grade, and the children are expected to have made a successful reading adaptation in a very definitely measurable degree at the conclusion of their first-grade work. One should explain here that first grade is simply a term to express a series of measurable units of work. It has nothing whatever to do with a time unit. In other words, a child may complete his first-grade work in reading in six months, or he may require a year and a half. A large majority of children complete this work within a year, but in no sense of the word is it to be expected, nor is anyone surprised if a child proceeds more rapidly. Rapid progress does not result in his changing his social group unless he is exceptionally mature. On the other hand, slow progress does not result in the child's being dropped back into a younger group unless he is socially very immature.

Classroom experience verified by experimental evidence drawn from a large number of sources contributed to the grade placement of materials. It was understood at the time these divisions were made that yearly re-evaluations of the course of study and the materials of instruction would be made. At the end of the first year, the course of study in oral and written English was almost completely rewritten. The work of the National Committee on Reading, the various monographs from the University of Chicago, and the work on reading done at Teachers College, made possible the set-up of a series of objectives in reading which have so far stood the test of three years' use with practically no modification. The results of teaching with a curriculum developed as outlined above are carefully checked by means of local diagnostic tests, and also by frequent use of standardized test material.

To summarize briefly the results of the Bronxville curriculum program of the last three years: (1) The program of creative activities has been stimulated rather than inhibited; (2) Mastery teaching has resulted in a higher degree of mastery of all of the fundamentals upon the part of a much larger group of children than ever before, and has reduced greatly the need for review drills; (3) Local teachers are much more willing to follow the course of study because they believe in the fundamental basis upon which it has been developed; (4) It has made local teachers much more wide-awake to the results of experimental work in education going on elsewhere, and also very anxious to test accurately the results of their own teaching technic; (5) The development of goal cards used as reports to parents and as a continuing record of pupil progress from teacher to teacher has given a continuity to the work of the children which did not exist before, and has brought about a pride in mastery of material.

VIII. Ten Steps in the St. Cloud, Minn., Curriculum-Building Program[1]

1. The problem was stated as fully and clearly as possible.
2. A committee of teachers was selected of those who were interested and best able to contribute to the solution of the problem.
3. Study of the problem by each individual member of the committee from all sources obtainable and a preliminary report prepared of each individual's findings.
4. Committee conference with supervisor for agreement on materials to be submitted to the different classrooms for trial.
5. Committee conference with supervisor for final acceptance.

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[1] As reported by R. H. Brown, Superintendent of Schools, St. Cloud, Minn.

6. Materials referred to classroom teachers for try-out. Teachers asked to offer criticisms and suggestions, and to report results obtained.
7. Materials returned to committee for revision in light of the classroom results.
8. Materials revised and teachers again asked to cooperate.
9. Committee again revised the materials as needed.
10. Tentative acceptance or rejection of the materials as part of the curriculum.

IX. Outline of Detroit's Curriculum-Building Program[1]

A. Fundamental Concepts:
  1. The goal of education is the development of individuals who are happy and efficient members of society.
  2. Individual differences are of such magnitude and importance that provision should be made for them in any course of study.

B. Procedure:
  1. Use of experimental school:
     a. Development of program to fit specific needs of children in the school.
     b. Trial of program.
     c. Checking of results of trial.
  2. Incorporation of findings in tentative body of material.
  3. Submitting material to general adviser for criticism.
  4. Use of material with appropriate modification in two other schools.
  5. Appointment of committee of outstanding teachers and subject-matter specialists to revise material.
  6. Rewriting of material incorporating revisions.
  7. Submitting material to experts for advice and further criticism.
  8. Provision for training of teachers in relation to aims, content, and method of course through:
     a. Presentation at district principals' meeting
     b. Presentation at teachers' meetings
     c. Demonstration lessons
     d. Instruction in extension courses offered by the supervisors.

X. Raleigh, N. C., Plan of Curriculum Revision[2]

Believing that if the teachers are to be in sympathy with the program and ready and willing to try the course in the classroom they must have a share in the work, the superintendent of schools of Raleigh Township planned for the work to be done by the teaching staff.

It takes time for a program to be developed by the staff while they are doing full-time teaching. Realizing the value of having the material tried out in the classroom with careful testing, checking, and constant revision in the light of results obtained, it was agreed by both administrators and teaching staff that the program should be carried over a period of ten or twelve years. Thus a sound basis may be secured for stating that the results obtained with the revised course of study are better than those obtained under the old course.

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[1] Prepared for the Supervision Commission by Arthur Dondineau, Supervising Director of Instruction, Detroit, Mich.

[2] Prepared for the Supervision Commission by Mildred English, Assistant Superintendent ot Schools, Raleigh, N. C.

The program is now in its sixth year and the results in both pupil and teacher growth have been satisfying.

Organization—In undertaking the program, a steering committee was organized to direct, and act as a clearing house for, the various committees. This committee is composed of Dr. Thomas Alexander, Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. M. R. Trabue, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill; Dr. Shelton Phelps, and Miss Lucy Gage, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.; and the superintendent and assistant superintendent of the Raleigh schools.

The members of the committee have kept in close personal touch with the situation and have at all times worked as members of a committee or group attacking any definite problem.

The first year the problem of curriculum construction and the need for the revision of the Raleigh course were discussed with a few teachers, the principals, department heads, and other key people in the system to enlist their active interest in the experiment.

A survey of the field of curriculum revision was made during the second year, by interested teachers, under the direction of the steering committee.

During this organization period, eighteen experts and subject-matter specialists from seven higher institutions were brought in to discuss with the teaching staff certain definite phases of the curriculum. This policy has been continued during the entire time. Not only have these men and women lectured to the staff, but they have met committees of teachers and discussed definite problems that are constantly arising. They have helped in the evaluation of the work as it has been developed and in checking the results obtained.

Use has been made from time to time of research studies carried on by bureaus of research in school systems, colleges, and universities.

The third year of the program was given to wide reading on the part of the staff to set up objectives for the educational program for the system, in the different subjects of the course, and for the different grades. A professional library was started with this phase of the work and has been added to from year to year as the need for books and helps on different subjects has arisen. This library is used by the teachers of the entire staff and has proved helpful not only with the curriculum program, but with the general work in the schools.

In the work of setting up objectives, the teachers volunteered for committee work on the subject in which they were most interested. The committees were composed of teachers from the elementary, junior, and senior high schools, as the need for a continuous program from the first grade through high school was recognized by all. The fact was recognized, also, that a good high school cannot be built on a poor elementary school course, and it was therefore felt that different levels of school work should be represented on each committee.

The committees organized with a chairman elected by the group. Often sub-groups were organized from the committee to make some special investigation. In this way individual problems were taken care of and reported to the committee as a whole. The work of the committees has been an after-school contribution to the program of curriculum making, as no teachers have been relieved from classroom duties to do this work.

In the fourth year, subject-matter committees were organized following the plan of committee organization explained above. These committees developed in each school subject objectives, subject-matter requirements, correlations, materials and methods to be used, and possible outcomes.

The following year integrating committees were formed to take all subject-matter reports for a given grade and see that there were no omissions or over-lappings, and that the entire program for any given grade had unity and coherence.

More progress has been made in the elementary school than in the high school, due, in part, to the fact that the work in the high school is so highly departmentalized. A "Visualized High-School Program" has been worked out by the staff on a large board which coordinates the different years and the various departments of the high school. The scheme shows the courses offered in the high school by years and by semesters as well as by topics within each year. Each teacher was asked to turn in to the chairman of the committee in charge of this work the major topics in the course as taught the present year. These topics were placed on cards which were hung on the board in the proper column showing the year and the department in which the topic is taught. The use of cards of different colors shows the correlations between departments and the articulation of the topics taught.

The chairman of the committee working on this often found it necessary to call in the members of a department to explain difficulties and statements that appeared contradictory. At times it was necessary to call in the members of two or more departments to make needed adjustments. The board is not in any sense a fixed scheme. A topic can be changed from one year to another or from one department to another by simply moving the card. Correlations with different departments are indicated by placing under the card showing the topic a card of the color of the department offering the same topic, or the department that should offer the topic. As the board has been filled with the cards from the different departments this year, showing topics now being taught, changes that the departments wish to have made have been indicated. In this way it is hoped that the course may eventually be so planned that the topic shall be taught where it is needed and before it is needed by other departments. For example, the science department should give some facts to the students who are to take home economics before the need for these facts is felt in the home economics department, and so on.

This visualized program shows the units now being offered in the high school. Committees are considering the type of high-school program that should be offered and plans are being made to try out some different units of work in the high school next year with the students in the first two years.

The thesis has been developed with the high-school staff that the program should come from within the school; that it should be the program of the teachers; that the principal is acting as ex officio member of the group. With this point of view the teachers are studying the child and his needs and trying to develop a program in the high school that will fit the students for citizenship of the highest type.

Results—It has not been the purpose of those working on the Raleigh Curriculum Program to develop a *new* course of study, but to check the present one, and the one which will be in use when the program is completed, against other good courses of study. Very careful records are being kept of each pupil from the first grade through the high school. When the children now entering school for the first time have completed high school, there will be available an accurate record of the growth of the individual pupil under the new program to check against the results obtained under the old course of study.

The program of curriculum revision now being carried on has brought about a better spirit among the members of the staff, has stimulated professional growth on the part of all concerned with the program, has helped develop an atmosphere in the classrooms that makes for happy pupils who seek opportunities for self-expression along many lines.

Facts gained from case studies of curriculum building program—These and many other case studies have been reviewed. A sufficiently representative group has been selected to show the part played by teacher, principal, and supervisor in the development of sections of the curriculum. In each case, it is clearly evident that the creative abilities of teachers are being discovered and developed and that all are working together harmoniously in the improvement of instruction. A careful examination of these studies indicates that teachers and supervisors have profited by participation in the making of courses of study in: (1) a clearer conception of educational objectives; (2) a critical attitude toward ways and means of reaching desired ends; (3) a tendency to analyze methods and select devices in the light of purposes and in consideration of the way "learning" goes on; (4) a consciousness of the need for a broad, general culture; (5) an appreciation of the value of cooperative work, not only as an inspiration, but as a distinct opportunity for making contributions and for receiving the contributions of fellow teachers. And, finally, the cooperative work of teacher, principal, and supervisor has resulted in a more intelligent use of the course of study in the classroom. In all the studies given above, it is clear that teachers and supervisors have pooled knowledge and experience and that recommended methods as well as accepted curriculum content are the final agreement of all participants. Conclusions so reached are the valid sanctions of intelligent group opinion.

Relationship of groups to curriculum making—Many cities have submitted plans showing marked agreement in the relationship of teaching, supervisory, and administrative forces in curriculum making. It is the judgment of all that the success of the program is dependent on harmonious relationships throughout the personnel of the system. The following outline of the duties of the members of the school staff appears in Cocking's *Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools,* referred to on page 177.

Planning the program—Central office.
Determining aims, programs of studies, time allotments—Central office, principals, supervisors, and teachers.
Determining subject-matter—Teachers with assistance of principals and supervisors.
Making objective tests—Teachers with aid of supervisors and division of research.
Installing new courses—Principal with assistance of supervisors.
Carrying constant revision—Entire system.
Editing courses of study—Central office.

Outcomes in the improvement of teaching and supervision—From the teacher's point of view, participation in the work of curriculum making has resulted in a clearer conception of educational objectives; a tendency to analyze teaching procedures in the light of educational psychology; a growing tendency to individualize instruction; an active interest in making use of educational research and experimentation in the solution of problems of individual differences; a more impersonal and objective attitude to the evaluation of results; a growing consciousness of the need and value of a general culture; and a finer spirit of cooperation.

From the point of view of the supervisor, there has been presented a challenge to maintain the high standards of supervisory efficiency demanded by teachers whose participation has resulted in increased knowledge in the whole field of education. Such demands as he must meet in a program of curriculum making have resulted in helping to make him an objective analyst. Observations interpreted in the light of clear and sound educational thinking have developed not only a critical and open-minded attitude to methods of procedure, but they have stimulated him to a critical study of the social values of subject-matter and of the need for its adaptation to individual differences.

And, finally, there has come clearly a recognition of the value of developing the creative talents of teachers; a knowledge that such utilization of teacher ability is creating for supervision a confidence in intelligent and sympathetic leadership.

CHAPTER IX

TRAINING FOR SUPERVISION

SUPERVISION is a complex, intricate, and highly technical type of work. It may be assumed without argument that specific training is necessary, both pre-service and in-service. If supervisors are to be trained, what then are the needs?

Four questions are suggested:

1. What training do supervisors now possess?
2. What constitutes adequate and desirable training for supervisors?
3. Is adequate and desirable training for supervisors available at present in any training centers?
4. What should superintendents be doing in training supervisors in service?

In discussing these items, no particular differentiation will be made between general and special supervisors and principals as supervisors. The discussion will be confined to that basic training desirable for any and all doing supervision.

The first question, what training do supervisors now possess, may be disposed of summarily. Even though conclusive and reliable data are not available at present, showing the actual training levels of those engaged in supervision, such observational evidences as we have indicate clearly that supervisors in the main are not specially and technically trained for their work. This is in part accounted for by the comparative recency of modern supervision. Furthermore, a scrutiny of college and university offerings during the past ten years shows with equal clarity that no very great amount of technical training has been available. Finally, knowledge of present training levels would not be particularly valuable in aiding us to answer the question of what constitutes desirable training.

The second question, what constitutes adequate and desirable training, then, is the point of departure for this chapter. The nature of adequate and desirable training for supervisors as hereinafter set forth has been ascertained in the following manner. The *actual* duties performed by supervisors have been scrutinized. These data have been supplemented by consideration of *desirable* duties as suggested by superintendents and theorists. Based on a list of actual and desirable duties, a tentative training regime has been outlined.

The third question, regarding the nature of training now available, is answered easily through examination of the offerings of training centers. This shows not only what training is available, but how closely these offerings approximate the theoretically desirable training.

The fourth question, what should superintendents of schools be doing to aid, direct, and train their own supervisors, indicates a different attack and perhaps the most practical one at this stage. Certainly it is the one most valuable to the readers of this book, namely the superintendents of schools.

Exhibits have been gathered showing what superintendents are actually doing in training supervisors in service. The principles and many of the practices are the same, of course, as for the older and better known activity of training teachers in service. In larger cities the work may be in charge of an assistant or deputy superintendent of schools.

It may be objected that many superintendents are not themselves well enough informed in supervision to carry on training in service for their supervisors. This is in part true, but the superintendent can and should initiate, organize, and carry on such programs, in which are discussed supervisory problems growing out of the work of the group. If he trains himself incidentally, all the better. At least it is highly desirable and quite practical for the superintendent to carry on group discussions with his council or cabinet of supervisors, working definitely toward a better theory and practice of supervision.

The activities of supervisors—If we are to suggest training for these officers, it is necessary to know what they do under practical conditions and what they should do under ideal conditions.

The duties of supervisors as shown by actual studies—In Chapter III of this Yearbook, there is presented an analysis of all available studies of the duties of supervisors. It is unnecessary to repeat here either the list of studies or the summary analysis of them. Both are easily available by turning back a few pages.

The duties of supervisors as presented by superintendents and theorists—The general functions of supervision as seen by a superintendent are presented in Chapter II of this Yearbook. Other similar statements are available in printed form.[1]

Comparing the various statements by superintendents and theorists with each other and also with studies of the actual duties performed, a large amount of agreement is apparent. It is possible, therefore, to present a summary list of major functions of supervision to which practically all competent people will agree. Such a summary is presented below. It is based on the two sources just mentioned, and is the basis for the outline of desirable training which follows.

A Summary Statement of Supervisory Duties and Activities

I. Inspection:

- A. Survey of the school system, the equipment, the means of instruction, the service, the personnel, the pupils, and other items of detail:
    1. Development of means of evaluating the personnel, equipment, methods of instruction, curriculum, and all other items pertaining to efficient instruction

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[1] See: Barr, A. S.; and Burton, William H., *The Supervision of Instruction,* Chapter I New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1926.

Gist, Arthur, *Elementary School Supervision,* Chapter I. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926.

Nutt, Hubert Wilbur, *Supervision of Instruction,* Chapter II. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920.

  2. Survey testing (use of tests to locate instructional shortcomings)
  3. Visitation of schools (for inspectional purposes)
  4. Analysis of any and all records and reports.

II. Research:

- A. The selection and organization of the materials of instruction:
  1. The setting-up of objectives, studies of subject-matter and activities, and experimental testing of materials
  2. The making and constant revision of courses of study
  3. Preparation of miscellaneous supplementary instructional material
  4. The selection of textbooks, setting up standards of distribution
  5. Testing the efficiency of the course of study, textbooks, and other instructional materials
  6. Preparation of descriptive lists of instructional materials, supplies, and equipment with suggestions for their use and care.
- B. Experimental study of the problems of teaching:
  1. The construction of tests
  2. The development of record forms
  3. The training of teachers in the use of tests
  4. The use of both standardized and local unstandardized tests:
     - a. For purposes of diagnosis
     - b. For purposes of classification
     - c. For determining progress and making comparisons
     - d. For teaching purposes (remedial prescriptions)
     - e. For purposes of educational guidance.
- C. Determining the desirable physical conditions of learning:
  1. Expert assistance in the criticism of buildings and building plans
  2. Expert assistance in the selection of supplies and equipment, writing of specifications, and setting up standards of distribution.

III. Training:

- A. The direct improvement of classroom teaching:
  1. Classroom visitation
  2. Individual and group conferences
  3. Directed teaching
  4. Demonstration teaching
  5. Directed observation
  6. Development of standards for self-improvement
  7. The training of principals to supervise instruction.
- B. The general improvement of teachers in service:
  1. Stimulation of professional reading
  2. Promotion of attendance at summer school, extension courses, and intervisitation
  3. Preparation of written, printed, or mimeographed bulletins, circulars, reviews, or bibliographies
  4. Development of exhibits of school work or other objective aids
  5. Planning for participation in administration, supervision, or experimental work.

IV. Guidance:

- A. Organizing programs of cooperative activity:
  1. Setting up objectives which have been derived through inspectional procedures or through teachers' suggestions

2. Supplying means and guidance for achieving the objectives:
    a. Necessary information and explanation of methods and devices
    b. Necessary supplies, equipment and instructional materials
    c. Necessary physical conditions for good work, insofar as these are under the control of the supervisor
    d. Special individual help on call; the diagnosis and evaluation of pupil progress; the diagnosis and evaluation of teaching ability.
3. Establishing and utilizing measures of success, both in terms of pupil and teacher activity.

B. The development and maintenance of morale, or esprit de corps:
1. Through expertness in professional service rendered (teachers will have confidence in and give allegiance to supervisors who are known to be experts)
2. Through a willing and unselfish expenditure of time and energy in meeting problems and in rendering service
3. Through administering supervision in a kindly, sympathetic, and cooperative, but none the less firm, manner
4. Through inviting cooperation in the solution of the problems arising within the system
5. Through giving full credit for all contributions from the teaching staff
6. Through providing opportunity for the exercise of teacher initiative in experimental work.

V. Professional and Semi-Administrative Duties:

A. The activities listed under III-B above for the general improvement of teachers are equally applicable to the supervisor, i. e., the supervisor should constantly improve through such means as professional reading and attendance at summer school.
B. The keeping up to date of such records as are necessary to effective supervision.
C. The interpretation of administrative policy upon matters of instruction to teachers, principals, some administrative officials, other supervisors, and the general public.
D. Expert advice to administrative officials charged with the selection, appointment, transfer, promotion, rating, and dismissal of teachers.
E. Developing the opinion of teachers and directing it in its effect upon the community. (Concerning school standards and aims, building campaigns, bond issues, salary increases, and special programs.)
F. Participation in the activities of civic bodies and clubs on behalf of administrative policy.
G. Preparation of written articles on behalf of administrative policy.

A Tentative Outline of Desirable Training for Supervisors

If, then, the foregoing presents a reasonably accurate picture of the actual and desirable duties of supervisors, what training should be required?

It is quite obvious from the foregoing summary that the supervisor must: (1) Possess a philosophy and certain knowledges, and (2) be able to do certain things. The outline on page 211 indicates in general what is meant.

It is obvious to the reader that some parts of the implied training should doubtless have been acquired by the individual before taking up specific training for supervision. That is, the training for teaching will care for part of this. However, we are concerned here with the total picture.

The Supervisor Must Know:

The science and philosphy of education.

The principles, common problems, and accepted procedures of school supervision.

The principles, problems, and accepted procedures of school administration.

The principles of general method or pedagogy, with perhaps some familiarity with special methods in certain fields.

The psychology of learning, of childhood, of adolescence. General social psychology.

The accepted procedures of research: statistical, laboratory, group experimental.

The nature and use of simple statistical terms and procedures.

The theory underlying the various uses of standard tests and scales. The principles of test construction.

The present curriculum problem, methods of attack, types of courses being developed.

School and child hygiene.

Certain training other than professional which will not be listed here.

Methods and technic of child accounting—pupil personnel work and guidance, including school progress and age-grade charts.

Principles underlying leadership and cooperation—how to get on with people without friction—social intelligence.

The evidence and findings of scientific studies of method.

The Supervisor Must Be Able To:

Confer with various types of individuals in such way as to accomplish purposes.

Confer with various types of groups, organize and direct conferences and meetings in such way as to accomplish purposes.

Do long-time planning: of supervisory activities, remedial teaching, and improvement in service.

Demonstrate good teaching procedure, that is, in terms of general method.

Analyze objectively observed teaching procedure, and organize intelligent critical discussions thereof.

Construct and use reliable objective standards for the evaluation of teaching, the evaluation of texts, or of supplies.

Secure the cooperation of individuals and groups in the foregoing and other activities.

Construct brief analytical bibliographies and reviews of the recent periodicals and books.

Write and circulate well-organized supervisory bulletins.

Plan and carry on research and direct others in research. (In curriculum reconstruction, experimental teaching, development of information tests, etc.)

Carry on testing programs, either for the lay public or the teaching body.

Keep clear and adequate records of his own activities, a filing system.

Develop teacher morale and professional spirit.

Keep up with modern developments in education, which means that he must be familiar with the sources of new ideas, such as experimental schools, professional monographs, and periodicals.

Speak clearly and easily before lay or professional audiences.

Some of the items rest in part on native capacity and cannot be acquired entirely by training, either pre-service or in-service. They are, of course, susceptible to training. Since the personality traits of supervisors are not discussed elsewhere in this book, we may digress very briefly here to point out the chief desirable attributes of a supervisor's personality. It cannot be too strongly emphasized, however, that since much does rest on personality, individuals of obviously unsuited personality should not be admitted to training.

A careful consideration of the many and varied duties of the supervisor, of the intricate problems confronting him, together with a realization of the importance of his whole activity, will furnish us with a check upon the different lists of personal qualifications. The big, dominating aim of supervision is the improvement of teaching. The cooperation of teachers is essential. The gaining of this cooperation calls for *kindness, sympathy*, and *tact*. Confidence is engendered by reliability and sincerity. Loyalty to subordinates is just as necessary and important as loyalty from subordinates.

The supervisor must originate and carry through projects in teacher-training, in the betterment of instruction, and in the organization of curriculums. This calls for *initiative, self-reliance, industry*, and *perseverance*. These qualities must be accompanied by *enthusiasm* and *optimism*.

The cooperation of teachers must not stop with passive acquiescence, but must be motivated and inspired to contribute and actively further the joint purposes of supervisors and teachers. This inspiration comes from a feeling of confidence engendered by a supervisor's *loyalty* and *sincerity*, combined with *energy, enthusiasm*, and *optimism*.

There will be inevitable explosions, or at least friction and disagreements. These situations the supervisor must meet with *tact, adaptability, resource*, and infinite *patience*. A sense of humor, so scantily honored in the study quoted below, is a vital and necessary part of a supervisor's make-up.

One of the few studies made on this point produced the following results. Large numbers of teachers were asked to list the desirable qualities in supervisors.

Teachers' Estimates of Supervisors[1]

Qualities	Frequency percent
Kindness or sympathy	55
Systematic individual supervision	48
Cooperation	16
Executive ability	10
Professional knowledge	10
Progressiveness	8
Leadership in community	8
Reliable judgment	7
Broad scholarship	5

Other requisites were: flexibility of requirement, sincerity, good breeding, attractive personality, ability to descipline, good health, ability to make a speech, fairness, lofty ideals, the ability to smile, promptness, reliability, poise, enthusiasm, moral and physical cleanliness, foresight, a democratic spirit, resourcefulness, courage, optimism, and a sense of humor (the latter with only two votes).

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[1] Bird, G. E., "Teachers' Estimates of Supervisors," *School and Society*, Vol. V, June 16, 1917, p. 717.

To return to training, of those items which can be developed, some may be acquired either wholly or very largely in the pre-practice training period. For others, experience or actual try-out is necessary for final acquisition and use of function. This latter distinction suggests an important point concerning the pre-practice period. Even here, there should doubtless be two phases: course work or *discussions about* the functions, and actual *practice in performing* the functions. The latter is commonly slighted, either because facilities are lacking or because of the inability of those directing the training to carry it out. Even though real experience may be necessary for final acquisition, pre-service training of the practice type should be included. That is, the supervisor in training can be given actual opportunities to analyze lessons and diagnose them, to present material to various types of groups, to direct teaching, and to organize and construct teachers' meetings. The following discussion may serve to clarify details.[1]

The amount of technical training—As a minimum, supervisors should have at least one year and preferably two years more than the amount of formal training possessed by the teachers whom they supervise. A more specific statement would be that they should have a bachelor's degree; and there is considerable sentiment that supervisors should possess a master's degree. Ideally, they should be graduates of both a normal school and a college of education instead of merely graduates of the latter. Teachers possessing requisite training background, who manifest classroom expertness and also marked capacity for supervisory leadership, should be given every opportunity to take advanced work at a university.

This insistence upon advanced work does not mean that such work necessarily fits one for supervision. A bachelor's degree or a year spent in graduate study will not necessarily fit one for supervision. No more will long experience fit one for supervision. In fact, very often it is a serious handicap. Far too many people who boast of twenty years' experience have really only had one year's experience repeated twenty times. More important than the length of study and number of courses is the content of these courses. More important than mere experience are critical analysis and progressive experience. The ideal combination of training, experience, and personality should be sought out.

The nature of the technical training—Obviously, the supervisor needs to have a knowledge of the history and philosophy of education, principles of teaching method, an understanding of tests and measurements, knowledge of the modern movement in curriculum construction, ability to use scientific methods of research, some knowledge of administrative problems, and of problems pertaining to school hygiene. In addition, there should be, of course, broad general education supplementing the professional. It would be difficult to make out a course of study for the preparation of supervisors and be sure that it was complete and correct. Part of the work listed is obviously in the normal school field, part is included in undergraduate college work, and some in graduate study.

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[1] The following paragraphs on training are based somewhat closely upon a similar discussion in Barr and Burton's *The Supervision of Instruction,* p. 542 ff. New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1926.

1. *Pedagogy and psychology*—The supervisor must be an artistic teacher. He must be able easily and effectively to teach lessons based on the course of study under conditions prevailing for the regular teacher. This ability is founded in part on natural ability, of course, and is enhanced by experience. It can be improved very materially in most cases, however, through theoretical training, through the observation of artistic teaching done by experts, and by means of special practice under expert supervision. The observation and practice teaching should be followed by critical analysis of the work done.

The theoretical training must include a study of the principles of method, which in turn involves a study of the principles of learning. As has been stated elsewhere, teaching method is good only as it arouses desirable pupil activity. Therefore, the nature of the pupil, his interests and capacities, are fundamental factors and must be studied. In addition to courses in method and in genetic psychology (both child study and adolescence), there should be others in general psychology and educational psychology. The thinking process should be analyzed and discussed in terms of children's experiences. This study of pedagogy and psychology should include as an integral part the consideration of experimental pedagogy, which is so often neglected in normal school courses. Participation in experimental work would be very beneficial.

In two very helpful articles, Charters points out the inadequacy of general principles alone.[1] The supervisor must be trained in the specific application of the principles as well. Practice in supervision should be available for the supervisor in training just as practice teaching is for the teacher in training. The routine details of visitation should be made clear as well as the nature and technic of professional criticism. The observation of expert teaching followed by thorough analytic discussion should be provided. Many teachers believe that supervisors should be chosen only from among those teachers who have taught under supervision. A better application of this argument would probably be to include in the training requirements practice teaching under the critical supervision of experts, this also to be followed by detailed discussion.

The related field of classroom management, routine, and discipline should be studied in connection with the teaching process. The consideration here will lead to a brief study of the planning and construction of buildings and the administration of the physical plant. The emphasis in this latter work should be upon the contacts the grade teacher will make with such things and not primarily upon the viewpoint of the administrator.

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[1] Charters, W. W., "The Inadequacy of Principles of Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. IV, 1918, pp. 215-21; and "The Administration of Methods of Teaching," *ibid*, pp. 237-44.

The experimental data upon which the daily program is based should be touched upon.

2. *Curriculum making*—In this field experimental pedagogy is again involved, with emphasis on curriculum building. The psychology of elementary school subjects, their history in the curriculum, the arguments for and against their inclusion, should be dealt with. There should be practical work in the selection of subject-matter and the building of curriculums. This involves practice in the analysis of social activities and needs, after the fashion set forth by Bobbitt and Charters. It involves also a careful scrutiny of instructional materials and supplies, plus attempts to test them out in real situations.

3. *Theory and practice of testing and measuring*—Studies to determine what subject-matter is most useful in real life involve the field of educational measurements as well as that of subject-matter, since many of the standard tests are based upon studies of social needs and usages. The history of the test movement, the theory underlying it, and the derivation and application of individual tests should be dealt with. This necessitates work in statistics as applied to education.

The intelligence tests should be taken up historically, and a study made of the psychology underlying the different types. The theory and practice of administering the several tests must be included. The supervisor must be trained to use tests both for survey purposes and also for diagnostic use in planning remedial instruction.

4. *School hygiene*—Closely related to this is the consideration of child hygiene. All intelligence tests should be supplemented by a brief examination of the child's physical condition. This examination must of necessity be somewhat brief and superficial, but the supervisor should know the average age and weight norms, chest measurement, etc., and should be able to recognize the common symptoms of trouble with the eyes, ears, nose, or throat. The easily recognizable symptoms of children's diseases should also be familiar to him. Children should be referred to the school nurse, the doctor, dentist, or oculist, as circumstances demand.

In attending to the hygiene of the school child, the supervisor must also be competent to pass on certain aspects of the hygiene of the school building itself. Proper standards as to the heating, lighting, ventilation, sanitation, and janitorial service are all matters which may from time to time come to the attention of the supervisor.

5. *Improving teachers in service*—In preparation for his activities in bringing to his teachers the best new departures and discoveries in education, the supervisor must be given opportunity to plan and hold teachers' meetings.[1] The technic of the efficient committee and conference meeting must be worked out and applied. Definite bibliographic training should be

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[1] See Chapter XI, "Supervisors' Conferences and Meetings with Teachers."

given in practically all courses taken during training. The supervisor must know how to keep in touch with current periodicals and new books.

It might be noted in passing that most of the devices the supervisor will use to improve his teachers in service will equally well improve him at the same time. For this reason, the whole field of training in service is doubly vital, and anything bearing upon it should be brought to the attention of the supervisor.

The difficult problems in the field of teacher rating should be most carefully canvassed. Practice in using several types of rating cards should be given, together with a study of the derivation of such scales. Practice in making up scales will be valuable since it will focus attention upon the desirable and undesirable elements in a teacher's training, activity, and personality.

6. *The general field of education*—Not only will the supervisor's activities be qualified by his knowledge of the aim of education, but he will often be called upon to explain such things to his teachers. It is no disparagement of the average grade teacher to say that he is, more often than not, quite ignorant of the big general aim of education and unable to apply it to the smaller problems of classroom teaching. Or a more competent teacher may call into question the whole theory underlying a school subject or procedure. The supervisor will need, therefore, to have advanced work in the history, philosophy, principles, and science of education. He should be well read in those general fields, and should also be familiar with the discussions in the periodicals that attempt to make the more abstract theories in some measure concrete.

7. *Administration* [1]—It was noted that supervision and administration were at one time the functions of the same officer and that even yet the two are often confused. The supervisor occupies a strategic position between the administrative officers and the teaching force. He is primarily concerned with the betterment of teaching processes, but must at times take the attitude of the administrative officer. In some cases definite administrative duties are carried by supervisors, especially in the case of the building principal. On the other hand, the supervisor must be alert to teacher sentiment and take the position of an emissary of the teaching staff in presenting their views and desires to the administration.

In training supervisors, therefore, attention to the field of administration will be necessary. Phases that bear more directly upon his actual duties should be emphasized. The collection and distribution of school money, child accounting, the responsibility to the community, the contacts with the public, the conduct of the surveys, the construction of buildings and the management of the physical plant, the keeping and filing of records, the cost and sources of supplies, are probably matters with which the supervisor should be reasonably familiar.

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[1] See Chapter II of this Yearbook for a discussion of the relation of supervision to administration.

Probably one of the most important duties in this field will be the supervisor's participation in the work of educating and molding public sentiment. School patrons need to be educated to appreciate and approve new methods of teaching and of management, to approve of experiments and of expenditures; and the supervisor with his accurate knowledge and first-hand data should appear before parent-teacher associations and other similar gatherings in the continuous effort to bring about better understanding of school problems. Because of this, his training should probably include some reference to public speaking and news writing.

In passing, it should be noted that the supervisor should not only speak at parent-teacher associations and other meetings but should take an active part in organizing and directing such organizations.

8. *Training for research*—Heretofore, supervisors have not in general been trained in the technic and uses of research. However, it is perfectly obvious that in planning the supervisory program, in planning remedial teaching, in assisting teachers to organize experiments, and in constantly searching for new methods of solution for teaching problems, supervisors must make use of the research technic. The very attitude of research will in itself correct many of the errors which have lessened the efficiency of supervision in the past.

9. *Training other than professional*—In addition to this technical and professional training, there should be goodly allowance made for general education. Literature needs no argument and should be included liberally. The problems in sociology and economics are vitally related to and materially condition school problems. History and philosophy should precede and accompany the history and philosophy of education. Biology, or some other science in which the evolutionary point of view can be stressed, should be included.

A most valuable item in the supervisor's training will be the acquisition of the scientific method or attitude. For a long time this has been taught supposedly by means of the laboratory sciences. While it might be well to include some traditional laboratory science in the supervisor's experience, it is no guarantee of the scientific method, because of the unscientific and unpsychological methods of teaching in vogue. The scientific attitude can be gained as well, if it can be gained at all, in the field of educational measurements, in experimental pedagogy, in conducting surveys and investigations. Wherever and whenever possible, the supervisor must learn to proceed on the basis of impartial, objective, mathematically precise, verifiable evidence gathered by experts. Failing such evidence, a summary of the best expert opinion should be taken as a guide.

The benefits that come from travel, from general reading, and from participation in community affairs not connected with the schools should not be overlooked.

Training for Supervision Available in Colleges and Universities

Data relative to this point were gathered two years ago, and scrutiny of college catalogs shows that very little change has taken place meanwhile.[1] Hosic received replies from 140 institutions of higher learning giving information on training offered for supervisors. There are included state universities, state colleges, and semi-public and private colleges and universities. Of these institutions, only seventeen gave courses specifically designed for supervisors during the regular year. Sixteen of them offered such courses in summer. The reason for this small number seems to be that there is a relatively small number of people engaged primarily in the general activities of supervison. After excluding those who have other duties or who do specialized supervision, there are probably less than two thousand people involved. Hosic believes that the institutions feel perhaps that they cannot attract a sufficient number to make the courses worthwhile. This is doubtless true in part. Lack of analysis and attention to the problem are also involved. There must be some specific theoretical and practical training for the work. Certainly we cannot believe that general courses in education and general courses in related fields are adequate pre-service training for supervision, or for any other educational service. Just how general the training offered is can be seen by examining Table 34 on page 219, which shows the thirty-four different courses required or suggested by the seventeen institutions offering such work.[2] It is immediately apparent that, while many of the courses must be valuable if we may rely on their titles, many others are doubtful. Of a few of them, Hosic says, "It must require some callousness to 'require' some of them for supervision."

Hosic also shows in a discussion and with tables too long to quote here that some institutions designate groups of courses as adapted to those who wish to prepare for given types of work. Most of the groups are rather general in nature. Their vagueness suggests that they are made up in the pious hope that they will fit certain needs, rather than on any definite understanding of the position for which the training is designed. Some institutions, however, have evidently given serious thought to the matter. The following exhibits are illustrative.

The first outline of training taken from the current bulletin of the Leland Stanford Junior University makes reference to supervisory certification. Professional certification is affecting college practice and should in time be a powerful force in the development of desirable curriculums.

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[1] Hosic, J. F., "The Training of General Supervisors," Chapter XI, pp. 133-54, in *Educational Supervision,* First Yearbook of the National Conference on Educational Method, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1928.

See also: *The Elementary School Principalship,* Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Chapters XXI and XXII, Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1928.

[2] Hosic, J. F., "The Training of General Supervisors," Chapter XI, pp. 138-9, in *Educational Supervision,* First Yearbook of the National Conference on Educational Method, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1928.

TABLE 34.—SUMMARY OF COURSES REQUIRED AND COURSES SUGGESTED FOR
INTERESTED IN THE WORK OF SUPERVISION

Professional Fields	Academic Year 1926-1927							Summer Session of 1926						
	State Universities		Semi-Public and Private Colleges and Universities		State Colleges		Total	State Universities		Semi-Public and Private Colleges and Universities		State Colleges		Total
	Courses required	Courses suggested	Courses required	Courses suggested	Courses required	Courses suggested		Courses required	Courses suggested	Courses required	Courses suggested	Courses required	Courses suggested	
1. Elementary school supervision	2	3	2	3	......	1	11	3	1	2	4	......	2	12
a. Supervision of a particular elementary school subject	4	5	......	......	......	......	9	1	......	......	......	......	......	1
b. Rural school supervision	......	......	1	......	......	1	2	......	1	......	......	......	......	1
2. General school supervision	......	2	......	2	......	......	4	......	1	1	3	......	1	6
a. Supervision of a particular general school subject	......	......	......	4	......	......	4	......	......	1	2	......	......	3
3. Elementary school administration	......	......	......	......	......	......	0	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
4. Elementary school administration and supervision	......	......	1	1	......	......	2	......	......	1	1	......	......	2
5. General school administration	2	1	2	......	......	......	5	2	......	1	......	......	......	3
6. General school administration and supervision	......	......	1	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	1
7. Elementary school principalship	......	......	1	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	1
8. Elementary school curriculum	1	......	......	1	......	......	2	1	......	......	2	......	......	3
9. Technic of elementary instruction	......	1	......	......	......	......	1	......	1	1	1	......	......	3
10. General principles of secondary instruction	......	1	......	......	......	......	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	0
11. Secondary school curriculum	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
12. General school curriculum	......	......	......	2	......	......	2	......	......	1	......	......	......	1
13. General technic of instruction	1	......	1	2	......	......	4	1	......	......	1	......	......	2
14. Class organization and management	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
15. Practice supervision	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	0
16. Practice teaching	......	......	1	1	......	......	2	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
17. Observation	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	1
18. Tests and measurements in elementary school subjects	......	......	1	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	1	......	......	2
19. General educational tests and measurements	1	......	......	4	......	......	5	1	......	......	3	......	......	4
20. Elementary statistical methods	1	......	......	......	......	......	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	0
21. Mental tests	1	......	......	2	......	......	3	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
22. General psychology	2	......	......	......	......	......	2	2	......	......	......	......	......	2
23. Educational psychology	1	......	1	1	......	......	3	1	......	......	4	......	......	5
24. Psychology of elementary school subjects	......	......	......	2	......	......	2	......	......	......	2	......	......	2
25. Psychology of secondary school subjects	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	......	......	......	0
26. Child psychology	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	1
27. Brightness and dullness in children	......	......	......	......	......	......	0	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
28. Treatment of exceptional children	......	......	......	1	......	......	1	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
29. History of education	2	......	......	3	......	......	5	2	......	1	2	......	......	5
30. Theory and philosophy of education	1	......	3	3	......	......	7	1	......	3	4	......	......	8
31. Educational sociology	1	......	1	2	......	......	4	1	......	1	2	......	......	4
32. Vocational education and guidance	......	......	......	3	......	......	3	......	......	......	......	......	......	0
33. Hygiene and health education	......	......	2	......	......	......	2	......	......	......	......	......	......	0
34. Character education	......	......	......	2	......	......	2	......	......	......	1	......	......	1
Total	20	13	18	45	0	2	98	16	4	18	40	0	3	81

Leland Stanford Junior University

School Supervision Credential

The School Supervision Certificate authorizes the holder to engage in school supervision, in accordance with the class held, viz.:

Class A. General Supervision, authorizing the supervision of all instruction within the grade of the Certificate.
Class B. Special Supervision, authorizing supervision in a special field, such as music, art, physical education, etc.
Class C. Departmental Supervision, authorizing the supervision of departmental instruction in a junior college, high school, or junior high school.

Persons devoting at least half time to supervision will be required to hold the School Supervision Certificate. The grade of Certificate is determined by the grade of Teacher's Certificate held in the subject, or subjects, to be supervised, and, since January 1, 1925, has been indicated on the State Credential.

This Credential will be granted to the holder of a valid California Teacher's Certificate, or a California Life Diploma, of any regular grade or special type, who has had at least 17 months of successful experience in teaching, including the subjects he wishes to supervise; and who, in addition to all requirements for a regular or Special Teacher's Certificate, has completed school supervision subjects in accordance with the class specified.

Class A—General Supervision:

I. Fifteen quarter units selected from not less than four of the following courses (School Organization and Supervision, and Growth and Development of the Child required):
   1. School Organization and Supervision (Courses 250, 251, or 256, 4 units)
   2. Growth and Development of the Child (Course 168, 3 units)
   3. Philosophy of Education (Course 133, 5 units)
   4. History of Education in the United States (Course 180, 3 units)
   5. Educational Tests and Measurements (Course 186, 3 units)
   6. The Curriculum (Course 231, 2 units; 260, 2-3 units).

II. Seven and one-half quarter units selected from the following group:
   1. Rural Education (Course 174, 3 units)
   2. Educational Sociology or Social Aspects of Education (Course 300, 3-5 units)
   3. The Relation of Community Agencies to Public Education (Course 175, 5 units)
   4. Problems of Supervision (Course 256, 4 units; 262, 4 units)
   5. Modern Practice and Experiment in Education
   6. Methods in Mental Diagnosis (Course 186, 5 units; 189, 4 units; 245, 4 units; 172, 3 units)
   7. Vocational Guidance (Course 234 or 235, 2 units).

Note: The candidate must also verify at least nine quarter units in each of two subjects selected from the following: Music, art, physical education, manual arts, commerce, home-making subjects, and agriculture. These courses need not be in addition to courses presented for the Teacher's Certificate.

Class B—Special Supervision:

I. Six quarter units of work selected from at least two of the following courses (Growth and Development of the Child required):
   1. Growth and Development of the Child (Course 168, 3 units)
   2. Philosophy of Education (Course 133 or 175, 5 units)
   3. History of Education in the United States (Course 180, 3 units)
   4. Social Value of the Special Field in which Supervision is to be done.

II. Nine quarter units of work selected from the following group (Organization, Objectives, and Supervision of Instruction in the Special Subject required):
1. Organization, Objectives, and Supervision of Instruction in the Special Subject
2. Tests and Measurements in the Special Subject (Course 186, 4 units)
3. Problems of Supervision (Course 262, 4 units)
4. Vocational Guidance (Course 234 or 235, 2 units).

Class C—Departmental Supervision:

I. Seven and one-half quarter units of work including the following courses (Problems in the Organization and Supervision of a Department, and Educational Measurements required):
1. Problems in the Organization and Supervision of a Department (Course 254, 4 units)
2. Organization and Supervision of Instruction (Course 256 or 262, 4 units)
3. Educational Measurements, including Tests in Special Field, if available (Course 186, 4 units).

Note: Holders of Class C-Departmental Supervision Credential may be granted the School Administration Credential upon completion of 15 quarter units of work in school administration subjects as outlined under Group I of requirements for the Administration Credential.

Teachers College of Columbia University grants special diplomas to various types of supervisors and prescribes desirable course work for such diplomas. As, for instance:

Diploma: Principals of Primary School and Supervisors of Primary School.
Program: At least one year of study to include: (1) Education 233M or 234M, Elementary Education and Supervision (Major course for principals and supervisors of elementary schools and of primary grades, and critic teachers in training schools, either part of course) Education 233H-234H. The Primary School (either part of entire course); (2) Supplementary courses to be selected as indicated by previous experience, from subject-matter courses and the fields of kindergarten, industrial arts, school activities, educational measurements, hygiene and health education, and others; (3) Courses in the given fields of education as required for the degree for which the student is a candidate.
Diploma: Supervisors of Elementary Schools, Supervisors of Upper Elementary Schools, Critic Teachers in Elementary Schools.
Program: At least one year of study to include: (1) Education 233M or 234M, Elementary Education and Supervision (Major course for principals and supervisors of elementary schools and of primary grades, and critic teachers in training schools, either part of course); (2) Supplementary courses to be selected as indicated by previous experience, from subject-matter courses and the fields of kindergarten, junior high school, school administration, industrial arts, school activities, educational measurements, hygiene and health education, and others; (3) Courses in the given fields of education as required for the degree for which the student is a candidate.

Liberal offerings are available from which to select courses indicated under (2) and (3) above. Obviously, with proper advice a prospective supervisor could plan a course approximating the theoretically desirable training suggested in this chapter.

The following exhibit from the University of Chicago catalog indicates the trend at that institution. Space prohibits detailed description of the courses listed. This is doubtless not necessary; the exhibit indicates an important point as it stands, namely, recognition of the problem by the training center and an attempt to meet it.

SPECIFIC PROFESSIONAL TRAINING IN EDUCATION[1]

Nature of Courses	Superintendent	High-School Principal	Elementary School Principal	Grade-School Supervisors and Critic Teachers
For general overview of fields	310, 342, 350	310, 342, 350	310, 342, 350	342, 350
For managing the school population	328	328	328	328
For an understanding of psychological problems	353, 354, 355, 357, 359	355, 357, 359	353, 354, 357, 359	353, 354, 355, 359
For directing teaching methods	366, 369, 370, 371, 372	367, 370, 371, 372	366, 369, 370, 371	366, 367, 369, 370, 371
For organizing curricula	343, Kg.-Pri. 320	344, 345	344, Kg.-Pri. 320	343, 344, 345
For organizing and administering teaching staff	332	332	332	....
For supervising the teaching staff	213, 333, Kg.-Pri. 330	213, 333	213, 333, Kg.-Pri. 330	213, 333
For teaching and supervising special subjects (2 or 3)	390-397, Kg.-Pri. 305, 310	390-397	390-397, Kg.-Pri. 305, 310	390-397
For directing health agencies	209, 374	374	209	209
For guidance, case study, and personnel work	329, 368	329, 368	329, 368	329, 368
For measuring abilities and achievements	363, 364, 365	363, 364, 365	363, 364, 365, Kg.-Pri. 340	363, 364
For the statistical treatment of facts	307	307	307	307
For a unified view of professional duties	335	336, 338	338, 340	375
For a knowledge of other specialized duties	318, 321, 323, 324, 380	318, 323	318, 323	....
For an understanding of economic and political institutions	Pol. Sci. 357	Pol. Sci. 357	Pol. Sci. 357	....
For an understanding of individual and social behavior	Psy. 101 Psy. 251	Psy. 101 Psy. 256 Psy. 355	Psy. 101 Psy. 251	Psy. 251
For a knowledge of social forces and institutions	Soc. 230 Soc. 311 Soc. 326	Soc. 230 Soc. 270 Soc. 320 Soc. 358	Soc. 230 Soc. 270 Soc. 351	Soc. 270 Soc. 320
For an appreciation of American ideals	Phil. 218	Phil. 218	Phil. 218	Phil. 218
For an understanding of the problems of community life	Soc. 363	Soc. 366 Soc. 368	Soc. 363 Soc. 366	Soc. 363
For an adequate mastery of the content of 2 or 3 special fields which are to be supervised	Such subject courses in History, English, Science, Geography, Mathematics, Foreign Languages, etc., as may be recommended by the appropriate Departmental Counselors.			

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[1] Unless otherwise designated, all courses listed are in the Department of Education.

Special Certificates for Supervisors and Administrators

Since the levels of supervisory training are reflected in part by certification requirements, and since raising the standards for such certificates will in turn affect training levels, it has been thought well to include a summary of state laws relating to such certification.

Twenty states[1] *have laws and regulations requiring special certificates of supervisors*[2]—Certificates for administration and for supervision, valid for city and county administration and supervision, and certificates for principals in high schools and elementary schools are issued in twenty states. In nineteen of these states, supervisors' certificates are issued by the state board of education or by the state department of education, represented by the state superintendent of schools or by the director of certification. In California, supervisors' certificates are issued by county boards of education upon presentation of credentials issued by the state board of education. Such credentials are valid only in the county in which issued.

Besides these certificates issued especially for the field of work indicated, a number of states prescribe certain types of certificates not designated as administrative or supervisory which are valid for administration and supervision. Differentiation between the administrative and supervisory functions and between the functions and qualifications required of high-school and of elementary school principals are noticeable recent tendencies. High-school principals' certificates usually require specialization in secondary education and in administration and supervision. Elementary school principals' certificates require specialization in the elementary school subjects or in elementary education and in administration and supervision.[3]

Requirements for obtaining supervision certificates—Experience, teaching or supervisory or both, and scholarship are the two prerequisites for obtaining school supervision certificates. The amount of experience required depends upon type of certificate issued. Between states the maximum amount of experience necessary to secure a supervisor's certificate varies from none to eight years. The majority of states require from three to eight years' experience before granting a supervisory certificate.

The scholarship required for a school supervision certificate also varies with the type of supervisory certificate granted. In some states, additional teaching experience is accepted in lieu of a year of graduate study. To illustrate, in Alabama a Class A certificate of administration and supervision is granted on three years' teaching experience and graduation from a standard college and one year of approved graduate work in education, or equivalant; or on six years' teaching experience and graduation from a standard college or equivalent.

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[1] Alabama, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

[2] See: *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates.* U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1927, No. 19, Table 4, pp. 42-125.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 24.

Scholarship requirements for supervisory and administrative certificates usually include completion of a four-year college course, including certain prescribed subjects. In a few states elementary supervisory certificates are issued after completion of two years of college or normal school work. Certificates for administration and supervision requiring graduate study are issued in Alabama, California, Delaware, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts (certain positions only), North Carolina, Rhode Island, and Utah.[1] Differentiated certificates for high-school and elementary principals, requiring special training or examination in the respective fields for which issued, are granted in Delaware, Connecticut, Indiana, Maryland, and North Carolina.

Duration of supervisors' certificates—The length of time for which a supervisor's certificate is first granted in each state often depends upon the class or type of certificate issued, i. e., general or special, permanent or limited. The maximum duration of a supervisor's certificate when first granted varies between states from two years to life. Column 3 of Table 35 on pages 226-7 shows the duration of supervisory and administrative certificates by states.

Conditions on which supervisors' certificates are renewable—When the period has elapsed for which supervisors' certificates are valid when first issued, they may be renewed in most instances on evidence of successful experience, professional spirit, and professional growth. In certain states, in-service professional training is also required. To illustrate, in Alabama, Class A certificates of administration and supervision are granted for a six-year period. At the end of that time, they are renewable for six years upon compliance with one of the following conditions: (a) four years' experience and four years' reading circle work; (b) twelve weeks' college or university work in administration and supervision; (c) membership in both state and national educational associations for the six years covered by certificate, and attendance at their annual conventions for four of the six years.

In Kentucky, a standard certificate for administration and supervision is granted for four years, at the end of which time it is renewable for four years on presentation of satisfactory evidence of successful teaching experience, and may be extended for life on credit for twelve additional semester hours' work in education subjects and three years' teaching experience.

An elementary school supervisor's certificate in North Carolina may be made valid for life upon five years' experience as principal (or supervisor) and credit for three five-hour courses in an approved summer school, or equivalent college credit, specializing in city or rural school administration and supervision.

In West Virginia, a supervisor's certificate is good for five years. It is renewable the first time upon three full terms of teaching during life of certificate and upon recommendation of county superintendent. It is renewable a second time upon evidence of six semester hours' residence or correspondence study in accredited school, or examination on two state reading circle books, provided a grade of at least 85 percent is made. It becomes a life certificate upon third renewal.

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[1] See: U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1927, No. 19, p. 24.

The following are among the highest scholarship requirements made by individual states for certificates in school supervision. California requires for a general supervision certificate:

> Valid teacher's certificate or life diploma of general elementary, general junior high school, or general secondary grade and completion of not less than fifteen semester hours of collegiate work in school supervision subjects in addition to minimum requirements in education for highest grade of general teacher's certificate held.
>
> Subjects for professional study include: 10 semester hours in school organization and supervision, growth and development of the child, and in any 2 of philosophy of education, history of education in the U. S., educational tests and measurements, and the curriculum; 5 semester hours selected from the following—rural education, educational sociology or social aspects of education, relation of community agencies to public education, problems of supervision, modern practice and experiment in education, methods in mental diagnosis, vocational guidance; applicant must also have had at least 6 semester hours in each of 2 subjects selected from the following: Music, art, physical education, manual arts, commerce, home-making subjects, agriculture.

In Rhode Island the scholarship requirements for a professional teacher's certificate of secondary grade, which permits the holder to teach or supervise, are as follows:

> Graduation from approved college or equivalent, 216 hours of graduate professional study or equivalent, and approved course in Rhode Island education.
>
> Subjects for professional study include: 36 hours each in—(1) History of education, (2) educational psychology, (3) Rhode Island education, including school law, public school administration, and history of education in Rhode Island, (4) principles of education, (5) school practice or methods of teaching, (6) school or class management. Credit for all professional subjects may be secured either by examination or professional study.

Summary—Table 35 summarizes the above data relative to the laws concerning supervisory and administrative certificates in twenty states. It shows the field of work covered by these certificates, their duration in years, years of training required, also number and type of examination subjects required, together with number of years of experience.

Activities of Superintendents of Schools in Training Supervisors in Service

As indicated earlier, superintendents should be stimulating their supervisors to growth. It might even be possible to provide, through the cooperation of superintendents and training institutions, a type of supervisory internship such as has been indicated for beginning administrators by Strayer of Teachers College, Columbia University, in conjunction with several cities.

At present, however, we must content ourselves with the following exhibits of actual training programs taken from the field.

TABLE 35.—STATES WHICH ISSUE, AND REQUIREMENTS FOR, SPECIAL CERTIFICATES FOR ADMINISTRATION OR SUPERVISION OR BOTH[1]

State[2]	Field of Work Covered	Duration, in Years	Years of Training				Number and Type of Examination Subjects		Years of Experience
			Graduate Study	College	Normal School	High School	General	Professional	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Alabama	County and city superintendents and supervisors, assistant superintendents and supervisors, and principals	6	(a) 1 (b) (c)	(a) 4 (b) 4 (c) 1	(a) (b) (c) 2	4	....	....	(a) 3 (b) 6 (c) 3
California	(1) Administration in field covered by teacher's certificate held.[3]	2	(a) ½; 1 (b) (c)	(a) 4 (b) 3½;4 (c) 0–4	(a) (b) (c) 0–2	4	(a) (b) (c) 17	(a) (b) (c) 2	17 mos.; 0
	(2) General supervision in field covered by teacher's certificate held.[3]	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	(3) Supervision of special subjects.[3]	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	(4) Departmental supervision.[3]	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Connecticut	Superintendent, assistant superintendent, supervisory agent, or principal devoting entire time to supervision	3	....	(a) 4 (b) 4 or (c)	(a) (b) 4 (c) 2	4	(a) (b) (c)	(a) (b) 2 (c) 2	(a) 5 (b) 4 (c) 4
Delaware	Superintendent in special school districts or high-school principal	3	1	4	....	4	....	....	3
	Principal of state-aided high schools	3	1	4	....	4	....	....	2
	High and elementary schools as principal	3	1	4	....	4	....	....	1
	Elementary school supervision	3	....	(a) 4 (b) 2	(a) (b) 2	4	....	....	3
	Supervision of special subjects	3	....	4	....	4	....	....	3
	Elementary school principal	3	....	½	2	4	....	....	3
Illinois	Supervising or teaching in all grades	4	....	....	2	4	1	6	3
	....do	3	....	1	1	4	1	3	2
Indiana	Superintendent's license for teaching or supervising any school	(a) 5 (b) 3	(a) 1 (b)	4 or	4	4	....	....	(a) 5 (b) 3
	Supervisor's license, first and second grade	(a) 5 (b) 3	(a) 1 (b)	4 or	4	4	....	....	(a) 3 (b) 2
	High-school principal's license for administration or supervision in senior and junior high schools or elementary and high school combined.	(a) 5 (b) 3	(a) 1 (b)	4 or	4	4	....	....	(a) 3 (b) 2
	Elementary school principal's certificate for administration and supervision of any elementary school or elementary and high school combined.	(a) 5 (b) 3 (c) 2	(a) 1 (b) (c)	(a) 4 or (b) 4 or (c) 3 or	(a) 4 (b) 4 (c) 3	4	....	....	(a) 3 (b) 2 (c) 2
Kentucky	Superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers of general subjects	3	....	2 or	2	4	....	....	0
Maine	Superintendent	2	(a) ½ (b)	(a) 4 (b) 2 or	(a) (b) 2	4	....	(a) (b) 5	2
Maryland	Administration and supervision in all schools (required of county superintendents)	3	1	4	....	4	....	....	2
	Elementary school supervision	3	....	2	2	4	....	....	4
	Helping teacher	3	....	1	2	4	....	....	4
	Supervision in special field	3	....	4	....	4	....	....	4
	High-school principal	3	1	4	....	4	....	....	2
	Elementary school principal	3	....	½	2	4	....	....	3

Massachusetts..	Superintendent in superintendency union..........	3	3	4 or	4	4	....	8	5
New Hampshire.	Superintendent or supervisor....................	3	(a) (b) 2 (c)	4	.... 4	4	....	(a) 7 (b) 7 (c)	(a) 5 (b) 3 (c) 8
	Headmaster (or principal) of secondary schools....	....	....	4 or	....	4	....	....	....
New Jersey.....	Supervisor's certificate to teach or supervise instruction..............	3	....	4	....	4	....	....	(a) 4 (b) 3
New York.....	City superintendents..................	....	....	(a) 4 (b) (c)	(a) (b) 2 (c)	(a) 4 (b) 4 (c)	....	....	(a) 5 (b) 10 (c) Administrative, prior to May 1, 1917.
North Carolina.	Superintendent............................	(a) 5 (b) 2	Summer school	4	....	4	....	....	(a) 5 (b) 3
	Assistant superintendent......................	5	do.	4	....	4	....	....	3
	High-school principal.......................	(a) 5 (b) 2	do.	4	....	4	....	....	(a) 3 (b) 1
	Elementary principal.........................	(a) 5 (b) 2	do.	4	....	4	....	....	(a) 3 (b) 1
	Elementary supervisor.........................	5	do.	4	....	4	....	....	3
	Supervisor adult illiterates[4]........................	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Pennsylvania...	Subject supervisors[5]........................	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Rhode Island...	Superintendent, assistant superintendent, or supervisor..................................	(a) Life (b) 5	216 hrs.	4 or	4	4	....	....	(a) 5 (b) 3
	Superintendent or assistant superintendent.......	(a) 5 (b) 1	....	4 or	4	4	....	....	(a) 8 (b) 3
Tennessee......	County superintendent..........................	Life	....	4 or	2	4	....	....	3
	Supervision....................................	Life	....	2 or	2	4	....	....	3
	County superintendent.........................	4	....	2 or	2	4	12	2	3
Utah..........	Administration................................	Life	....	4	....	4	....	....	5
	....do.......................................	(a) 5 (b) 2	....	(a) 4 (b) 2	....	4	....	....	(a) 0 (b) Eminent.
	Supervision of grammar grades, primary grades, health, special subjects......................	Life	....	4	....	4	....	....	5
	....do.......................................	(a) 5 (b) 2	....	(a) 4 (b) 2	....	4	....	....	(a) Supervisory. (b) 0
West Virginia...	Supervision..................................	5	....	(a) (b) 4 or	(a) (b) 2	(a) (b) 4	(a) Prescribed (b)	(a) Prescribed (b)	(a) 2 (b) 0
Wyoming......	Superintendent of a school system including an accredited school and any administrative or teaching position not requiring special preparation..	Life	....	4	....	4	....	....	3
	Superintendent or principal of a school not maintaining an accredited high school...............	3	....	2	....	4	....	....	0
	Supervision of music, art, penmanship, and physical education...........................	Life	....	2	....	4	....	....	3

Letters in parentheses refer to classes of certificates.

[1] Taken from: *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1927, No. 19, pp. 261-3.

[2] States not included which indicate in the field of validity certificates which are valid for administration or supervision are: Louisiana, Minnesota, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, and New Jersey; and Illinois for administration.

[3] Issued upon general secondary, general junior high, and general elementary teachers' certificates.

[4] Must conform to general regulations governing all supervisors' certificates.

[5] Issued upon standard college, normal, or special subject certificate, especially authorizing for supervision in a particular subject or subjects.

Programs in Local School Systems for Training Supervisors in Service

Part of a supervisor's training must be secured on the job—Many supervisors lack technical training. Some have had textbook courses in supervision, but they lack skill in holding individual and group conferences, in personal contacts, in teaching teachers, and they fail to articulate the work of one school unit with that of another. Some are even lacking in an expert knowledge of their particular subject fields or in the content of the curriculum of the particular school unit which they are supervising. Even the supervisor who has had two years of special pre-service training in college or university has a lot to learn on the job. Some superintendents of schools recognize this fact and carry out definite programs for increasing the efficiency of their supervisors. To secure detailed information relative to these programs, an inquiry was sent to all members of the Department of Superintendence.

The following points were listed as suggestive of the type of information desired:

I. Ways and means through which you helped your supervisors during the school year 1928-29 to improve their professional equipment—knowledge of their field and breadth of view.

> This will include such items as well-organized study groups, round table discussions, required professional reading, etc.
>
> Please give detailed information as to exact titles of books read, number of meetings held, and topics discussed at each meeting. Include in this report copies of the outlines used.

II. Ways and means through which the personal equipment of supervisors was improved.

> A person may have excellent academic equipment, but lack the ability to work with and through people. Cite specific examples of what was done to aid individual supervisors.

III. Ways and means for training supervisors to be better liaison officers between the office of the superintendent of schools and principals and teachers in various school buildings.

In other words, how do you help supervisors to become an articulating force in the school system? Cite specific examples.

IV. Describe your efforts to give supervisors a proper perspective of their various activities and contacts.

> Give illustrations of effective organization of the supervisory staff, i. e., setting up schemes so that the time of each supervisor is properly divided between field and office work and is distributed between the various schools, both as to particular days and throughout the year.

V. Give illustrations of how supervisors have been helped to improve teachers' meetings.

> Do you merely tell your supervisors how to supervise, or do you train them in their special activities?

VI. List ways in which you aid your supervisors to improve the articulation of subject-matter between the various school units, such as kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school. (Vertical supervision)

Also list specific ways in which you aid your supervisor to improve the articulation of subject-matter through horizontal supervision.

VII. Describe your program for encouraging summer school attendance, extension work, travel, and systematic reading. Be as specific as possible.

Note: This outline is intended to be suggestive rather than prescriptive. In your reply, follow it as far as seems practical. If there are any points in your program of improving supervisors not called for in the outline, please include them in your write-up under an appropriate head.

The rest of this chapter will be devoted to extracts from the reports of city superintendents in all parts of the country. They represent the actual efforts of superintendents to direct the improvement of their supervisors while on the job.

I. How Superintendents Help Supervisors to Improve Their Professional Equipment

Under this heading, nine or ten items were reported, and representative statements are given below. On items for which a large number of answers were turned in a summary is given and no specific exhibit.

1. Holding personal conferences with individual supervisors.

The first exhibit is included as a contrast and to give point to the fact that superintendents should not be caught without any organization and coherent procedure in this matter.

> I am sorry that I have no nice plan on paper which I can send you, but this is what I actually do. It is my custom to work with supervisors individually and, as far as possible, on real cases. Supervisors often make the mistake of being too easy or too important. Their second weakness is their lack of a basic philosophy. Usually I start a new supervisor out by having a long discussion on the bases upon which his subject is founded and upon the fundamental aims of the local school system. Then we go over the course of study in some detail with the idea of relating the various projects and ideas to the basic philosophy which we have discussed.
>
> Then the supervisor goes out and finds a teacher who does not cooperate. I go over the problem with the supervisor and suggest ways by which such a teacher can be brought into line, so that he will become an enthusiastic and active helper rather than one who does something because he is told he must.
>
> Inasmuch as my policy is to get things done by selling ideas to the teachers, I have insisted that supervisors do the same. My program of training supervisors in service consists mainly of sitting down and having fatherly talks; and about the time a supervisor is trained sufficiently to do his work well, someone comes along and hires him away from us.

One or two statements in this exhibit are indicative of an outworn point of view in school supervision and administration. The good organizer today does have some sort of plan on paper, an organized program of activities depending upon the problems of his situation. The superstition is still manifest here and there, however, that superintendents are too busy to attend to the problems of the situation. In the second place, the training of supervisors has gone far beyond "fatherly talks." It is an organized program. In the third place, supervision does not "go out and find a teacher who does not cooperate." Here we have relics of the old inspectional point of view.

A very large number of the superintendents of the country sent in rather definite accounts of their arrangements for the conduct of individual conferences. Since the principles and procedures here are well-known or easily available in standard texts, further illustrations will not be given.

2. Arranging group conferences involving the supervisory force and certain staff officers.[1]

To illustrate, in Philadelphia the special subject directors hold periodic conferences with their groups of supervisors. These conferences have as one of their fundamental purposes the improvement of professional equipment. At these meetings, professional reading is outlined, the programs of related professional meetings are discussed, the content of the course of study is reviewed, and special problems in the technic of supervision receive intensive consideration. In many of the special divisions, the supervisors themselves meet with groups of teachers in the field, and bring back from these conferences suggestions for the central group.

The following topics were discussed in round table conferences by the director of commercial education of the Philadelphia public schools with his supervisors: (1) The scope of supervision, (2) the outcomes of supervision, (3) duties and procedures of supervision, (4) training teachers in the use of tests, (5) remedial instruction based on the use of tests, (6) criticism of supervision, (7) administrative relation of the special supervisor to the supervising principal, (8) planning the week's work, (9) studying the teacher at work, (10) the supervisor's use of test results, (11) plans for school exhibits, (12) improving demonstration teaching, (13) conducting scientific studies, (14) teacher cooperation in curriculum, (15) a technic of criticism, (16) results and procedures in other cities, (17) standards in subject-matter, (18) encouraging the teacher to describe for publication a particularly good piece of work, (19) the human background of the teacher, (20) training the teacher to exact the pupil's best handwriting product in all written work, and (21) left-handedness.

The director of the department of supervision of the public schools of Detroit, Mich., reports that during the school year 1928-29 these means were used to help supervisors improve their professional equipment, knowledge of their field, and breadth of view:

a. Meetings of the curriculum committee were held bi-monthly to consider problems of curriculum construction.

b. Meetings of the heads of departments were held bi-monthly to consider problems of general administration.

c. Within a department staff, meetings were held bi-monthly for the purpose of discussing:

1). The subjects considered at the meetings of the heads of departments
2). The questions studied in the meetings of the curriculum committee
3). General problems arising in connection with the field work, training, and research programs.

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[1] See Chapter XI, "Supervisors' Conferences and Meetings with Teachers."

d. No professional reading was required. However, members of the group often recommended and discussed articles and books which they had found helpful.

3. Bringing supervisors into direct contact with leaders in the educational field and making them partially responsible for certain professional improvement courses offered to principals and teachers in the local school systems.

4. Appealing to them directly through a series of discussions regarding curriculum reconstruction.

To illustrate, in Lynn, Mass., the eight supervisors working in the special subject fields are members of the local curriculum council which directs curriculum reconstruction. They are expected to bring their point of view to this council for the benefit of the other members.

5. Allowing days off to go to conventions and conferences.

6. Recommending the reading of helpful books.

To illustrate, one county superintendent of schools reports:

> When I get a new book, I hurry through it, and if it is good, I mark it freely. Then I give it to a supervisor or principal who will do a good job of selling it to others. He reads it, and as soon as he is ready to report, we meet and have him discuss the book for us. After a book is thus discussed, it generally come into keen demand and goes the round of supervisors and principals.

7. Giving newly appointed supervisors intensive training in the office of the director for a few weeks before going into the schools, and requiring new supervisors to observe the work of experienced supervisors.

The foregoing point is so important that it deserves special commendation. It is reported but rarely, but it is a new device which is commended to all superintendents.

8. Arranging professional meetings which are addressed by speakers from various parts of the country.

9. Encouraging Principal-Supervisor Club which meets monthly for the purpose of discussing professional problems bearing on fields of mutual interest.

To illustrate, in West Hartford, Conn., four meetings were held during the school year 1928-29 for the purpose of studying and improving the supervision of teachers. The principals felt that they wished to know how to recognize and develop better in the classroom the larger and broader aims of education.

The topic discussed at the first meeting was: Purposes and technic of supervision; and at the second meeting: Evaluation of teacher and pupil activity.

The third meeting was spent in observing together four different teachers of varying ability for the purpose of evaluating the teacher and pupil activity.

The fourth meeting was devoted to a discussion of a particular lesson, following a carefully prepared outline.

As a result of these meetings and much observation, study, and discussion, this local group worked out the following outline:

Supervising the Teaching

A. Ideals of Supervision:[1]

Successful supervision will always be a cooperative undertaking of teacher, principal, and supervisor. The contribution of each toward the improvement of instruction must be recognized.

Measurement of teaching, and not teacher measurement, is the real objective.

Every teacher should be permitted and encouraged to be a constructive thinker and scientific investigator in his own classroom.

Aim for specific things—study the particular situation carefully—make suggestions that are helpful, practical, and efficient.

Supervision should help teachers to help themselves in the improvement of instruction.

B. Entering the Classroom:

Enter the room in a spirit of helpfulness, not criticism.

Be friendly, cheerful, and non-conspicuous.

Never by word or act do anything which will exalt you or belittle the child's estimation of his teacher.

Be an interested, active-minded observer. You are there for a specific purpose.

Be thoughtful in your visitations. We all have our off days.

Be fair, considerate, and frank with the teachers, the children, and yourself.

C. Types of Classroom Visitation:

1. The rather general, short visit to see that everything is "going all right."
   This is necessary and has to be done, but after the beginning of the school year should form a small part of the supervisory program.
2. The visit to check up certain mechanical or physical things throughout the building:
   a. Ventilation and classroom temperature
   b. Plan books
   c. Adjustment of seats to pupils
   d. Appearance of room in general
   e. Attendance.
3. The visit in which you wish to gain pointers, helps, or information in teaching from your teachers.
4. The visit to follow up some one of the arts of teaching of which you may be making a special study, such as:
   a. Questioning
   b. Types of drill
   c. Assignments
   d. Socialized recitation.
5. The visit which the teacher has asked you to make in order to help with some of his teaching problems.
6. The visit to observe the teaching of some particular subject throughout the grades with the purpose of improving the teaching of that subject.
7. The visit to locate individual teaching difficulties, in order that definite help may be given to improve the instruction in the classroom.
8. Certain special visits which the situation or circumstances require from time to time:

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[1] These ideals are in hearty accord with the philosophy of supervision set forth in Chapter I; "The Meaning and Necessity of Supervision."

a. Disciplinary problems
b. Visiting substitute teacher
c. Check up on "rumors"
d. Progress of individual pupils.

D. Evaluation of Teaching:

1. Physical conditions and organization of schoolroom.
2. Teacher and pupil activity.

The foregoing outline is brief and general, but it serves two purposes. It illustrates the organization of such a scheme and supplies those involved with an instrument for the preliminary observation and analysis of teaching. Supervisors should construct much more detailed outlines than this one as they become more expert, and many other good ones are to be found throughout the literature on supervision.

The following outline from Seattle is of interest:

> The Superintendents' and Supervisors' League, organized in 1924, has functioned as an active professional organization whose efforts have been devoted to a study of the specific problems of supervisors. The following are representative problems.
>
> One of the first undertakings of the League was to call for a frank statement from principals' study groups as to how the work of the supervisor might be improved. These reports were made the topics of two meetings of the organization. One of the outgrowths of this cooperation has been the organization of a committee by the League on standards of supervisory routine. The problem of this committee was to standardize certain routine problems of the supervisor in visiting a building in order that both principal and supervisor might be enabled to economize time and effort. Another outgrowth was the preparation of a list of topics by the superintendent's staff indicating how principals might help the supervisors. These topics were submitted to the principals and discussed in principals' meetings.
>
> Among the various outcomes of the work of this organization have been: (1) The realization of common problems by supervisors of the various subjects: (2) better correlation in subject-matter of the various special subjects and better coordination of the efforts of supervisors; and (3) improved understanding between principals and supervisors of the nature of their mutual aims, and increased understanding of means by which those aims are best served.

In Detroit, certain teachers are used as "key teachers." The key teacher is picked for his expertness in a given field, and is of assistance to the principals within a district, since the regular department specialist cannot get around as often as is desired. The key teacher gives demonstrations, serves as a visiting center, and may even visit other teachers within the district.

II. How Superintendents Help Supervisors to Improve Their Personal Equipment

A county superintendent of schools, who for ten years has followed a definite program of training his supervisors in service, writes:

> The training of a supervisor along technical lines is almost entirely valueless unless along with the training is developed a high degree of morale. By this, I

mean the supervisor must be happy in his work, see a future in his chosen field, and experience the joy and satisfaction that come from feeling that he is a contributive factor to the success of the entire school program. With the right kind of training and with this high sense of morale, the supervisors, including the building principals, hold most strategic positions in the public school system. They come in direct daily contact with the teachers. They also have many contacts with the pupils. Patrons of the school look to them for advice and help. Without their loyal and hearty cooperation the superintendent is powerless. His policies die "a-borning" and his efforts to effect instruction are almost futile.

Superintendents with this viewpoint give their supervisors systematic, sympathetic support, and do not leave them to fight their battles alone. When mistakes are made, they point out the error and offer constructive suggestions whereby its recurrence will be avoided, and give assurance that successful work will receive recognition.

These are among the ways and means which superintendents of schools report that they use most frequently for improving the personal equipment of supervisors:

1. Holding individual conferences with supervisors.

Superintendents of schools, on the whole, seem to feel that the question of the personal equipment of supervisors is largely an individual matter and must be handled through individual conferences and discussions. They report that in the course of the field work done by subject supervisors, difficulties and misunderstandings now and again arise; these furnish special opportunity for the training of supervisors in such qualities as self-control, tact, sympathy, understanding of relationships, the value of a smile, open-mindedness, and the habit of looking for the teacher's good points as well as his bad ones.

To illustrate, Detroit, Mich., reports the most usual method of improving the personal equipment of supervisors is the individual conference in which:

a. The strong and weak points in supervision and the supervisor's own approach and contacts are discussed.

b. Attention is sometimes called to what other people are doing, and an opportunity is provided for observing their procedure or hearing their description of it.

c. In some cases, helpful university or normal school courses are recommended.

2. Holding round table conferences.

To illustrate, one director of instruction and his supervisors had round table conferences for discussion, demonstration, and dramatization of better methods of: (a) Meeting the school principal, (b) securing the good will of the teacher, (c) handling the indifferent teacher, (d) caring for the complaining teacher, (e) producing contagion of cheerfulness, kindness, and helpfulness, (f) displaying sympathy by recalling your own difficulties as a classroom teacher, (g) getting the teacher's viewpoint, (h) showing professional ethics, and (i) building a welcome for the supervisors.

During these round table discussions, individual supervisors contribute from their own experience the plans and methods they have used to follow the topic under discussion. There is always an atmosphere of ease and freedom during these meetings, so that each supervisor feels free to seek the advice of the director and the group.

3. Assisting individual supervisors to improve their ability to work with and through people, by taking them to successful supervisors in other schools and letting them visit and ask questions.

4. Encouraging supervisors to exchange experiences and to consider ways and means of improving themselves and of meeting certain situations.

5. Bringing supervisors in contact with many prominent people throughout the city on various projects.

To illustrate, the superintendent of schools of Lynn, Mass., reports:

> One member of the central staff has joined the local Chamber of Commerce and is chairman of a Chamber of Commerce committee. Another member of the staff has been brought into contact with the local historical society and has served to bring from this society many valuable items of local history for use in the schools. Four members of the central staff are members in local service clubs; one staff member is president of one of these clubs. Practically all the members of the central staff have been brought into contact with the Community Welfare Association and are helping with the Community Welfare Drive. Three members of the central staff are members of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, and two of them attended the 1929 meeting in Cleveland. We feel that all these contacts help in enlarging the point of view of the supervisors and give them greater ability to work with and through other people.

III. How Superintendents Train Supervisors to Be Better Liaison Officers

These are among the ways and means which superintendents of schools report that they use most frequently:

1. Bulletins outlining duties of supervisors are prepared.

Long Beach, Calif., submitted a bulletin based upon considerable analysis, showing in tabular outline form the placement and degree of responsibility involved in supervisory relationships and contacts. Other cities have recently made similar analyses. One of the best illustrations is from East Chicago, Ind. See page 236.

The East Chicago bulletin shows rather explicitly the delegation of responsibility and the inter-relation between supervisors. Many other cities, notably Pueblo, Colo., and Oakland, Calif., submitted plans not in tabular form, but setting forth explicitly the policy of the superintendent which is to control throughout the system.

2. Supervisors are members of general committees, and are members of organizations through which they come in contact with the other departments of the school system.

3. Teacher-training courses are offered by supervisors through the local teachers college.

To illustrate, in Detroit the local supervisors offer teacher-training courses in the Detroit Teachers College.

CHART IV.—PLACEMENT OF RESPONSIBILITY AMONG SUPERVISORY OFFICERS IN EAST CHICAGO, IND.

Key

First responsibility	FR
Delegated responsibility by superintendent	DRS
Delegated responsibility by principal	DRP
Coordinate responsibility	CR

Note: Coordinate responsibility is to be construed as meaning that in a given function the supervisor has general direction throughout the system, but within the building the principal has the chief direction.

Less responsibility	LR
No responsibility	NR
Superintendent	S
Principal	P
General supervisor	GS
Subject supervisor (Director)	SS
Kindergarten-primary supervisor	KPS

Administrative Functions

	S	P	GS	SS	KPS
I. Establishing and Maintaining General Control:					
A. Cooperating with policies of state, county, and city authorities	FR				
1. Enforcing state school laws, rules and regulations of state and local boards of education, and directions of county and city superintendents		DRS	LR	LR	LR
2. Giving publicity to educational policies through:					
a. Letters and circulars	FR	DRS	DRS		
b. Press—publications	FR	DRS	DRS	LR	LR
c. Public meetings		FR	NR	NR	NR
d. School exhibits		CR	LR	CR	CR
e. Demonstration programs at service clubs, etc		CR	NR	CR	CR
Note: No work of a given department may be used for publicity, demonstration, or similar purposes without the consent of the supervisor in that field.					
B. Providing for building or supervisory organization:					
1. Organizing administrative staff in building or supervisory field, e. g., principal, vice principal, counselor, dean of girls, and nurse, by assigning specific duties to each, provided they are not in conflict with directions issued by the superintendent		FR	NR	LR	LR
2. Organizing building clerical staff		FR	NR	NR	NR
Note: Supervisor may have own clerk.					
3. Organizing janitorial staff		FR	NR	NR	NR
4. Providing for articulation of building or supervisory organization with central administrative organization		FR	NR	LR	LR

4. The contacts between superintendents, administrative and supervisory officers and principals, and teachers in the schools are kept fresh by a variety of activities such as inspectional visits upon the request of the principal, surveys of one or more phases of work in a school, the visiting of teachers eligible for promotion, the conducting of visitors from out of town on visiting tours, and the organizing and conducting of contests.

5. Series of conferences are held.

The number, variety, and personnel of these conferences vary in different school systems. These types were mentioned frequently:

a. Local meetings of the general administrative, supervisory, and research officers.

Some school systems report that in these group meetings the relationship of principal, teacher, and supervisor is considered.

b. General staff meetings which include all members of the superintendent's staff.

c. Meetings of teachers conducted by principals, but advised by officers of the superintendent's staff.

d. Meetings of principals conducted by the superintendent or officers of his staff.

6. Mimeographed bulletins are sent out by the various supervisory officers to the principals and teachers.

7. Conferences are held with individual supervisors regarding special problems that arise or seem imminent.

8. Advice is given supervisors as to how to build up and maintain good will.

To illustrate: Supervisors are advised that when they go to a school, they should always first go to the principal, and then go to other departments as his helper and adviser. Each supervisor should make the principal feel that he is there to help him build up a better teaching force.

9. Demonstration lessons for supervisors are conducted by the superintendent of schools.

In these lessons, definite ways and means are suggested whereby supervisors can serve as better liaison officers between the office of the superintendent of schools and principals and teachers in various school buildings.

IV. Efforts of Superintendents to Give Supervisors a Proper Perspective of Their Various Activities and Contacts

This point is obviously similar to the one preceding. These are among the efforts which were most frequently reported:

1. A weekly report of all staff officers is sent to the superintendent of schools.
2. An annual report from each staff officer is required which gives a perspective of the work which has been done.
3. Conferences are held between the various supervisory officers concerning the details of their work.
4. Supervisors are relieved as much as possible from office and clerical duties in order that they may be in the schools every day.

5. The schedule of visits to the schools is carefully worked out and systematically checked. This prevents having too many special subject supervisors visit any one building at the same time, and makes sure that the time of each supervisor is equally distributed among the various schools.

6. At the beginning of the school year, each supervisor systematically estimates the scope and character of work to be undertaken during the year. When this estimate is approved by the superintendent, it is reduced to a program basis.

The following table presents the organization established in Glendale, Calif., for the purpose of systematically allotting time in the various activities demanded of the supervisors. In Glendale, all supervisors do not engage in regular teaching, hence the second column of Table 36 is in some instances blank. Assigned supervision refers to definitely programmed school visits. Unassigned supervision refers to unprogrammed school visits—the supervisor spending time in those schools most in need of supervision. Office refers to that time regularly employed by the supervisor in preparation of lesson programs, project samples, and in organization work.

TABLE 36.—PERCENT OF TIME DEVOTED BY SUPERVISORS OF GLENDALE, CALIF., TO SPECIAL ACTIVITIES

Supervisor	Percent time			
	Teaching	Assigned supervision	Unassigned supervision	Office
Nature study and elementary science	0	50	30	20
Art	0	50	30	20
Music	0	60	20	20
Penmanship	0	50	30	20
Physical education	0	50	30	20
Home economics	40	0	50	10
Manual training	50	0	50	0

The following program is typical of the supervisors in Glendale, and shows for one week how supervisory service is allocated. Programs similar to this are in effect throughout the year.

Program of the Supervisor of Music

	Monday	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*	*Friday*
Morning:	Columbus	Columbus	Fremont	Mann	Roosevelt
Afternoon:	Office	Unassigned	Woodlands	Office	Unassigned

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that there should be increasing use of supervision on call. This visitation must increasingly be in answer to specific problems and demands of the situation. We must assume such in the foregoing exhibits of supervisory time. Mere routine visitation should be reduced to the absolute minimum necessary for legitimate inspectorial procedure.

The director of the department of supervision of the Detroit public schools reports that supervisors are helped in gaining a proper perspective of their various activities and contacts through group discussions, individual conferences, and the circulation of reading matter of professional value. Yearly programs of work, weekly progress reports, reports of school visits, and the city superintendent's annual report also aid in giving supervisors a proper perspective of their various activities.

Furthermore, in Detroit, each supervisor plans a division of time and effort providing for a certain amount of field work and training, a definite amount for research, and a given amount of time in the office for conferences and assistance to teachers. For example: Each member of one department is in the office on a schedule which calls for Friday afternoon and one other afternoon each week as a minimum for office hours; each member is responsible for keeping office hours one Saturday morning of each month; and at least one morning each week is devoted to research.

V. How Superintendents Help Supervisors to Improve Teachers' Meetings

These are among the ways and means most frequently reported by superintendents of schools:

1. By being present at some of the supervisors' meetings with teachers.

2. Institution of local research councils in various schools or groups of schools.

To illustrate, in Lynn, Mass., all building principals are expected to hold building faculty meetings each Wednesday afternoon. During the past year, definite help was given the principals in improving these meetings by having them talk over with the supervisors in advance the topics to be discussed. These meetings are called local research councils and, in some cases, the topics under discussion have continued over quite a long period of time and have involved some real research work.

These research councils in Lynn grew out of the use of test results. Principals and teachers alike realized that to make the best use of these results it would be necessary for them to do further study and to learn what others are doing. The organization of these research councils was first discussed with the supervising principals. Then a bulletin was issued, giving suggested topics for study and grouping of buildings. It was emphasized that this was to be a voluntary procedure and that no council would be organized under compulsion.

Sixteen local research councils were organized and are now carrying on a regular program. For example, in one council, 21 teachers have made a thorough study of the uses of test results; in another council, the continuation school teachers are working out the practical coordination of industrial work and academic work, including a plan of definite training for specific jobs, and placement service for these jobs; and in another council, 40 teachers from various schools are working on the local history of Lynn. The director of research is considered, ex-officio, a general adviser of all these research councils.

3. Helpful suggestions are offered.

To illustrate, the report from Philadelphia states:

> Supervisors have been directed to confine themselves to specific points or lessons in teachers' meetings and not to attempt the mere outlining of the course. They have been urged to encourage teachers to present lessons for others at these meetings. Topics and material for discussion at such meetings have been given to supervisors and discussed with them. Much emphasis has been placed on the necessity for open and free discussion of problems by teachers.

4. Outlines for conducting teachers' meetings, with suggestions for their development, are distributed at the supervisors' meetings by the subject director, assistant superintendent, or superintendent.

The following outline is illustrative of this type of help offered to supervisors:

Outline of Suggestions for Teachers' Meetings

a. Time—select in cooperation with school principal and teachers.
b. Notices:
    1). Let your notice include the reason for the meeting.
    2). Make provision for the notice to reach teachers at least a week before the date set.
    3). Discover the "felt needs" of teachers.

c. Prepare a mimeographed outline for each teacher of the points to be discussed and be sure all methods and devices you mention in your talk are included in the outline.
d. Prepare for your own notebook a development of all topics on the outline.
e. Stick to the outline, so that you will not waste time.
f. Allow time for questions and discussions by the teachers.
g. Summarize your talk and the discussions and suggest plans or topics to be considered for future meetings.
h. Prepare a summary of discussions for the subject director or superintendent of schools and the principal.

5. In Detroit, the supervisory programs are discussed in advance with the supervisors. All printed and mimeographed material to be used by the supervisors is checked by the administration.

> Heads of departments in the intermediate schools and those in the high schools meet regularly to consider common problems or to observe the work of an outstanding teacher. Each department head is expected to discuss these subjects later with his teachers in his staff meeting. Groups of elementary teachers meet for similar purposes of discussion and "demonstration" at a school conveniently located for the groups.

6. Supervisors are expected to assist in the orientation of new teachers.[1]

To illustrate, in Detroit, each year all new teachers in a certain school subject are met in schools selected in various sections of the city. Members of the department prepare and distribute notes which have previously been discussed with the director of the department. These notes explain the use of the materials of the course, giving suggestions on procedure which supplement and reenforce the courses of study. The "items to observe" and the points to be considered as most essential in teaching are discussed before inspectional visits are made.

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[1] See pages 328-9 in Chapter XI for a description of meetings for new teachers held in Washington, D. C.

VI. How Supervisors Are Helped to Improve Articulation between Various School Units

These are among the plans reported by superintendents of schools:

1. Articulation grows out of the curriculum council and curriculum reconstruction work.

To illustrate, in Detroit, articulation of subject-matter at various grade levels is provided for in that the supervisor of a department is usually responsible for the construction of the course of study in his subject and the supervision of it through all the grades.

Supervisors within a department also have opportunity to examine and make contributions to courses of study for all grades in addition to the course of study in the subject for which they are mainly responsible in construction and supervision.

Discussion in curriculum and departmental staff meetings tends to improve both vertical and horizontal supervision through enlarging the scope of information and interest of department members.

2. A special committee looks out for the matter of articulation between the various units of the school system.

In some school systems, the approach is made through several committees; as, for example, a committee on promotion standards will consider the articulation from grade to grade; and a committee which is considering units of work has for one of its topics the grade placement of material.

3. The importance of having each supervisor and teacher in every unit of the school organization familiar with the course-of-study requirements of each of the other school units is stressed.

In a number of fields, such as art and music, supervisors are particularly directed to stimulate interest in correlating the special subjects with other subjects in the school program.

Horizontal articulation is encouraged by frequent meetings of teachers to study the same or similar units at the same time. Thus, if a geography class is studying the southern states, the work in music will be southern melodies; in civics, the form of government and where it came from in the South; problems in mathematics will deal with the industries, exports, and imports of the South; and the reading lesson will be supplementary stories laid in the South.

4. In certain subjects, such as home economics, special care is taken to assign supervisors not to separate units of the school organization, but to fields which will include various units.

5. One county superintendent of schools reports that articulation of subject-matter between various grades in the county is encouraged by having one unit of supervision through grades one to six, and another unit of supervision through grades seven to twelve.

6. Supervisors are encouraged by the superintendent of schools to share with him responsibility for the articulation of the various units within the local school system.

7. Certain meetings of supervisors and principals are given over to a discussion of articulation problems.

8. Cooperation with other departments in the organizing and planning of contests and other special activities secures horizontal extension in supervision.

VII. Programs for Encouraging Supervisors' Summer School Attendance, Extension Work, Travel, and Systematic Reading

These are among the programs most frequently reported by superintendents of schools:

1. A salary schedule which requires additional professional improvement beyond the required minimum if the supervisor is to progress beyond the basic maximum salary to the super-maximum salary.

2. Refund toward paying expenses of summer school attendance.

> To illustrate, in Meridian, Miss., the supervising principals are divided into three groups. The school board pays the expenses of summer school attendance of one group each summer.

3. Encouragement given chiefly through personal conferences.

4. Lists of summer courses are issued, and opportunities offered in different institutions are outlined.

5. Reading lists for special supervisors are prepared.

6. Supervisors are promoted within the local system where possible and to other systems as opportunities arise.

> Promotion is, to some extent, contingent upon the pursuing of additional study in summer schools and extension courses.

7. Leaves of absence are granted supervisors who desire to attend college or university.

8. The need for research in many phases of school work has operated to secure enrolment in extension courses and in intensive study of books, magazines, and reports dealing with these phases.

9. The value of travel is so continually obvious that no device is needed to secure it. Reports from those who have traveled or studied are often requested. Supervisors are encouraged to make as many helpful contacts as possible of a non-professional and general social character.

The preceding pages summarized the most frequent ways and means reported by superintendents of schools in various sections of the country and in different sized school systems for training supervisors in service. The next section of this chapter outlines the programs used in four cities and the program in use by a state department of education.

Program for Training Supervisors in Service in Birmingham, Alabama

In this report, the term "supervisor" includes supervisors of special subjects or departments and supervising principals. Eight phases of the Birmingham program for training supervisors in service are outlined below:

1. *Meetings of Principals and Supervisors:*

In Birmingham, a monthly meeting of principals and supervisors, with the superintendent in charge has been held for years. These meetings have to do with matters of policy, special problems of supervision and of administration. Since 1924, an institute for principals and supervisors has been held, usually for a week before the opening of the schools in September, to discuss problems of organization and administration.

Beginning with the session of 1926-27, a text has been used, and about one hour of the meeting has been given to the definite assignment in the text.

The monthly meetings are two hours in length; one hour is given to routine matters, the other hour to the assigned work in connection with the text.

The principals and supervisors are encouraged to attend educational meetings, particularly those of the Department of Superintendence, and the National Educational Association. In 1927, all principals and supervisors attended the Dallas meeting of the Department of Superintendence at the expense of the board of education.

2. *Regular Meetings of All Teachers for Which Supervisors Have Certain Responsibilities:*

Almost since their organization, the Birmingham schools have had regular annual institutes and monthly meetings of all connected with the schools. Until the session of 1928-29, the institute lasted a week; the session of 1928-29, for three days, immediately before the opening of the fall session. For most of the day, the teachers of each grade or of each special subject meet by groups. During the year, a two-hour meeting is held on Saturday morning at the close of each school month. One hour of the time is given to a general program with assembled teachers, the other hour to conferences of the same groups used in the institute.

The chairman of each elementary group is a supervisor or principal, appointed for the year. Heads of departments serve as chairman in high-school department meetings. The chairman of each group, under the general plan outlined by the superintendent with the help of some of the teachers in the group, is responsible for planning the work of the group and for conducting each conference. These plans are submitted to the associate superintendent (high schools) or to the assistant superintendent (elementary schools) for approval. Special subject supervisors are responsible for the presentation of their subject to all groups of teachers.

3. *Plan of Supervision Prepared by Each Supervisor:*

For the last two years, each supervisor has made out a plan of supervision for his school or department for the year. Individual conferences are held with the associate and assistant superintendents. During the year, progress of the plans is checked and the plans are modified as new situations arise. This planning of supervision has given the supervisors a better perspective of their various activities and has resulted in better supervision.

4. *Regular Weekly Meetings Planned and Conducted by Principals:*

Regular weekly meetings of all teachers in each building have been held since the schools were graded in 1883. For many years, this outline was prepared by a committee of principals and teachers for the whole city. In recent years, each principal has been permitted and required to plan this course for his own school in line with the plan of supervision for the year. These outlines must be approved by the superintendent's office. Under this plan, each principal is given greater freedom to make the meetings of his teachers an integral part of his supervisory plan.

5. *Use of Tests:*

a. Specific training for giving, scoring, tabulating, and interpreting tests:

1). Tests are given by member of tests and measurements department. Principal observes; he is then asked to make a study of test, report for a checking-up, practice on a few children, and finally give the test himself.

2). Principals are taught to score test papers. They then supervise the scoring done by teachers. Afterwards checked by department of tests and measurements, errors are submitted to principal for follow-up work.

3). Tables and charts are furnished principals as a means of assisting them in the interpretation of test results. Encouragement is given in the preparation of additional studies and charts.

b. Training in the construction of informal examinations of various types.

c. Training in the proper classification of children.

d. Training in discovering weaknesses of teachers, and pupils, and methods by use of tests.

6. *Membership of Supervisors on Course-of-Study Committees:*

For several years, the Birmingham public schools have had permanent committees on the course of study. Any changes in personnel have been made gradually so as to protect the continuity of work. The high-school committee is under the guidance of the associate superintendent of schools and includes all the high-school principals and heads of departments and certain selected teachers. The elementary school committee is under the general guidance of the assistant superintendent of schools and the primary supervisor. For each subject, there is a separate sub-committee, which is composed of a principal or supervisor as chairman, and other principals and classroom teachers. Each special subject committee is composed of the supervisor-chairman and selected teachers from the department.

In making the gradual changes in the personnel of these committees, an attempt is made to give each supervisor contact with the problems in the different subjects of the curriculum. This type of organization gives both vertical and horizontal correlation. At the same time, the supervisor is studying these problems, and growing in the ability to work out the solutions in his own school or department.

7. *Individual Supervision of Supervisors:*

The Superintendent, the Associate Superintendent, and the Assistant Superintendent supervise the work of the supervisors. The superintendents visit the schools and observe the work. Both at the schools and in the office they confer with the principals and with other supervisors on their individual plans and problems.

8. *State Department of Education Requirements for Continued Professional Training:*

Under the state laws of Alabama, each teacher, supervisor, and administrator must hold a certificate issued by the state department of education. The life of practically all of these certificates is limited, and their extension for another period depends on certificates of professional work done. Birmingham has no local requirement along this line. At the same time, professional training is encouraged.

Training Supervisors in Service in Minneapolis, Minn.[1]

The Minneapolis program for training supervisors in service has extended over a period of four years. The group studying supervisory problems consists of the superintendent of schools, assistant superintendents, assistant to superintendent (director of study), directors of departments under whom supervisory responsibility exists, directors of research, and supervisors in the special fields.

Many basic principles should be incorporated into any program for the improvement of supervision. The Minneapolis program attempts to stay as close to the following principles as possible.

Before a group of supervisors can understandingly participate in a program involving the whole group, they should be acquainted with the work and technics used by the other departments within the group.

Supervisors as a group are not cognizant of the work performed within each department of special supervision. Their reactions to problems are based upon the experiences within their own fields, which may be somewhat amiss from the function of special supervision. In order to view problems from a scientific and impersonal viewpoint, it is necessary to commence a study of special supervision by acquainting the group with the distinct responsibilities of each department, as well as with the entire field of special supervision.

Some departments have more assistants than others which apparently have similar tasks. The amount of supervisory assistance which shall be given to the group as a whole and the distribution of this assistance among the departments are problems for further study. The analysis of the work of each department raises many problems relative to its activities and the amount of assistance necessary. Some supervisors are capable of carrying on a program which results in three times the amount of assistance which others give. The organization and quality of the service are seemingly the most vital factors, rather than the number of activities to be carried or the number of teachers to be supervised. This is an administrative problem for further study.

If a study of supervision is to effect a change in the supervisory service, it must emanate from the needs of the group—A program which is not built on felt needs does not improve the conditions or interest those engaged in the work. The first important problem is determining these needs. Two technics have been used for this purpose in the following studies.

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[1] Prepared for the Supervision Commission by Harry Cooper, Assistant to the Superintendent, and Prudence Cutright, Director of Research, Minneapolis Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.

1. Surveys of supervisory service and building activities, the results of which are used as a basis for determining further study.

Two types of survey technics are used:

a. Actual recording on time analysis basis of all activities engaged in during the period of time.

b. Reporting on typical situations as representative of all types of work. "Typical" is defined as those activities regarded as most useful and consequently most used.

Where a picture of just what actually goes on is required, the time analysis technic is suitable; but where it is desired to obtain information relative to values, the "typical" situation technic furnishes the best evidence, as it includes those factors which the supervisor selects and considers most useful. The first type of survey is used in Step II. In Step IV, the second type is used. See pages 248-52.

2. Discussion of specific phases of work in which there is an apparent need for study. The results of the discussion terminated in the clarification and formulation of the problems for study.

The survey technics are used as a basis for work in Steps II, IV, and V; while Steps I, III, and VI were determined through discussions.

If a study of supervision is to effect a change in the supervision, all supervisors must engage in an active analysis and study of their own procedures—Otherwise, it results in superficial action and mere acceptance of changed conditions, without understanding the principles of supervision involved or experience and clarification of changes in practice. Whenever one group of people affected by the changes is not included in the study, progress is halted until that group catches up with those who have studied the problem. This factor is important and explains why many programs of supervision fail, or are launched with much difficulty. This means that before the program is completely launched, it must reach through supervisors, principals, teachers, and pupils. In each step of this study, the supervisors participated by engaging in some activity. Up to the present time, the study has been confined to staff officers except where activities were carried on in the schools. At the present stage, the program should include principals and teachers, as well as the staff officers.

Step I—Presentation of the Work of Each Department by the Supervisor in Charge—1926-27

The purpose of this step was to clarify the objectives of special supervision and to acquaint the supervisors and directors with the problems of other departments. An outline was furnished to assist the department heads in the preparation of their materials.

Each supervisor presented a brief summary of his work as requested in the outline, and distributed, two or three days before the meeting, mimeographed copies of this summary to members of the conference as a basis for discussion.

Outline for Supervisor's Statement on Work of Department

I. Teaching Objectives and Technics:
  A. Just what are the important skills and abilities which pupils should possess as a result of the work of your teachers?
  B. Who decided that these were the proper goals?
  C. What controversy, if any, is there in your special field concerning the adequacy of these goals?
  D. Sketch the essential points in a typical lesson illustrating:
    1. How your method applies the three fundamental laws of learning: readiness, exercise, and effect.
    2. How your method takes advantage of the principles of self-direction, self-appraisal, and cooperation.
    3. In what manner the work of your subject contributes to the work of other subjects.
    4. In what manner your methods interfere with the work in other subjects.
    5. In what manner the teacher determines when the goals set up have been reached by individual pupils and by the class as a whole.
    6. Give any other general or underlying principles which your teachers must keep in mind.

II. Supervisory Objectives and Technics:
  A. Enumerate the important things which a supervisor in your department should do for the classroom teachers, for principals, and for superintendents.
  B. Who decided that these were the correct supervisory objectives?
  C. Training:
    1. What are the outstanding methods by which you have trained teachers to attain their objectives?
    2. In this process of training, what part has been played by:
      a. Demonstration teaching
      b. Teachers' meetings
      c. Meetings with principals
      d. Conferences with teachers or principals
      e. Bulletins on aims, content, procedures, etc.
      f. University classes for teachers and principals?
    3. What part should the principal play in the training of teachers?
    4. Evaluate each of the methods you have used or are using, as well as those which you do not use or have avoided.
  D. Research:

    What research or experimental work has your department engaged in during the past two years, relating to:
    1. Supervisory or teaching objectives
    2. Supervisory or teaching technics
    3. Supervisor or teacher appraisal
    4. Other projects?
  E. Field Work:
    1. Describe any technics which you employ for purposes of gathering information from teachers, principals, other school systems, and lay organizations.
    2. Describe your technics for getting your ideas to superintendents and fellow supervisors.
    3. What are your methods for educating the community relative to the significance, merits, and needs of your department?
    4. Other activities.

F. Development:

What is your method of inaugurating new policies or new applications of old policies?

The outcome of this study resulted in a survey of general conditions which contributed evidence to support or clarify conclusions of Step I.

Step II—a. A Supervisory Survey for the Purpose of Determining the Significant Factors Affecting Service—1926-27

The supervisors engaged in this survey for a period of one week. During this time a detailed daily account of all their activities was kept. Information on the amount of service rendered to each building, the basis of the service rendered, and the number of teachers within the respective departments was incorporated into the survey results.[1]

The major conclusions were as follows:

1. About three-fourths of the supervisory service was initiated by the supervisor.
2. In the departments of art, music, handwriting, and nature study, the demonstration lesson was the major supervisory activity.
3. In the departments of home economics, manual training, physical education, and special education, observation, followed by individual teacher conferences, was the major activity. Other activities were not used to any pronounced extent.
4. Supervisory programs did not agree as to the amount of supervisory service rendered to large and small buildings. There was considerable agreement between the size of building and the amount of service in the department of music; some agreement in the departments of art and handwriting; but no agreement in the departments of physical education and nature study.
5. There were other significant factors affecting the supervisory load. These were as follows:

a. Certain departments were able to spend a much larger portion of their time to direct service in the schools.

b. Certain staff members were responsible for fields two and three times as large as others.

Step II—b. Critical Evaluation and Discussion of the Survey Conducted During the Previous Year

The discussions were controlled by a bulletin clearly describing the conclusions of the survey. Following each fact revealed by the survey, significant questions were listed relative to the functions of different departments and their varied practices. To illustrate: Conclusion I is given in detail in order to show the various problems set up for discussion.

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[1] A detailed account of this survey is given in the following article: Tiegs, E. W., "A Study in Special Supervision," *The American School Board Journal*, Vol. LXXV, Nos. 2 and 3, August and September, 1927, pp. 39-40, and 44.

I. *Initiation of Supervisory Service:*

Conclusion: About three-fourths of all supervisory service is initiated by the supervisors. The evidence of the report very clearly supports this conclusion.

Question: To what extent shall principals be expected to initiate specialized or expert supervisory service? Can it be done successfully without some of the following?

1. A brief but comprehensive statement of the aims and outcomes for the work of the entire year of the special department issued and explained to the principals in the early part of the year at sectional or general principals' meetings.
2. A list of subject objectives or classroom activities arranged in such a manner that a comprehensive idea of the particular function of that subject is obtained.
3. An organization which gives an opportunity to solicit services of supervisor in time of need.
4. A blank which gives an opportunity to report special weaknesses and unusual successes in special subjects.
5. An organization which permits principals to choose from a list of demonstrated lessons, arranged to correct weaknesses, those that will most benefit the building.
6. An organization giving the principal an opportunity to initiate and seek assistance on special problems arising in his building.

The questions and problems listed were those which had to be solved in order that the significance of the conclusions might be determined.

These discussions culminated in the setting up of a program for the study of specific problems.

Preliminary Outline of Topics Used in Determining the Selection of Problem

The four problems listed are those which appeared to be most in need of study. Much experimentation and study upon these problems assisted greatly in enriching the local supervisory service.

Supervisors were asked to study these problems with a view of determining which one they wished to concentrate upon for detailed study and report to the group; this report to be given some time during the second semester. Each supervisor was asked to make some definite contribution upon some phase of one of these problems. Freedom was extended to supervisors in their choice of what they wished to contribute.

I. *Bulletins and Courses of Study:*

A. Underlying philosophy of education upon which course is based
B. Aims and objectives
C. Organization and content
D. Adaptation to needs of pupils and teachers
E. Program for continuous enrichment and changing course of study to meet the ever-changing social demands, conceptions of education, and underlying basic teaching principles.

II. *Study of the Responsibility of the Principal for Instruction in the Special Fields:*

- A. Supervisory reports
- B. Direction of supervisory assistance
- C. Training principals
- D. Flexibility of supervisory program
- E. Adapting and coordinating special subjects as an integral part of the total education situation.

III. *The Coordination of Supervisory Activities:*

- A. Principles underlying itinerary and non-itinerary supervision
- B. Distribution of supervisory service
- C. Experimental and research work
- D. Policies alike in all departments
- E. Reports and records of supervisory service
- F. Organization of city for most effective supervision
- G. Administrative functions.

IV. *Study of Methods Used in Training Teachers to Use New Materials and Enrich Old Materials:*

- A. Survey program
- B. Training and enlisting support of principals
- C. Training teachers to use new materials
- D. Training teachers to enrich old materials
- E. Effective methods of assisting teachers
- F. The method of bringing before the teacher the best that is in the city
- G. Exposure to current studies and articles.

The conference group decided to study the problems listed in the following order:

1. Development of bulletins and courses of study.
2. Study of methods used in training teachers to use new materials and enrich old materials.
3. The coordination of supervisory activities.
4. Study of the responsibility of the principal for instruction in the special fields.

Step III—A Study of the Development of Bulletins and Courses of Study—1927-28

For the purpose of discussion, each supervisor was asked to furnish a copy of his course of study or a new unit which he intended to incorporate into his course of study. The discussion was controlled by providing for consideration of the following factors in a curriculum development program:

1. Organization and content
2. Adaptation to needs of pupils and teachers
3. Program for enrichment and changing the present course of study.

These meetings were concluded by the preparation of a guide to assist the supervisors and directors in a curriculum development program.

Many supervisors were in the midst of curriculum procedures. These meetings proved helpful in bringing about the correct relationship between special departments and the curriculum revision department.

Step IV—A Study of the Supervisory Activities Used in Training Teachers in Service—1928-29

This problem was the second in importance according to the decision of the group at the close of Step II.

A supervisory survey was conducted for the purpose of obtaining a typical picture of the supervisory activities used by the department heads and their assistants in their visits to the buildings.

The following directions taken from a bulletin on the survey state the purpose and extent of the survey.

> 1. Report on visits to five buildings. This report includes ten classrooms of which at least one classroom visit shall be reported for each building. Opportunity is given to the supervisor to select the classroom visits he wishes to report in order to give him time to make an accurate report, and to permit a selection of those which best represent the usual procedure.
>
> 2. The purpose of this survey is to obtain a typical picture of supervisory visits. If a report of a visit does not represent the usual procedure, state so on the blank. In this case, also state wherein it does not represent a typical situation.

The survey technic used here is that of obtaining typical situations as reported by supervisors. The survey covered only those activities which took place within a building visit.

The survey was divided into four parts:

A. Activities previous to supervisory visit to classrooms
B. Activities taking place in the classroom
C. Other activities
D. Report of status and needs as noted during visit to building.

Special forms were provided for reporting on activities taking place in the classroom.

There were 126 building reports from 74 different buildings in the city. The results showed wide variations in practices.

The survey showed clearly that special attention should be given to the improvement of classroom supervision as done by special departments. The departments of music, art, and handwriting used demonstration lessons almost exclusively. In only a few situations were group demonstrations or meetings held, followed by controlled discussion. A program of practice and evaluation of supervisory activities was needed. This program was viewed from the standpoint of itinerary schedules, length of class periods, teachers of special subjects only, teachers of regular subjects who give only a small portion of their time to teaching special subjects, the large school, the small school, the elementary school, the high school, the distance from one building to another, and the needs of the different situations involved.

The results of the survey were discussed by the group. These discussions were followed by the "try-out" program.

Step V—A Program of Supervisory Activities To Be Performed by Special Supervisors—1928-29

The supervisors were provided with twelve supervisory activities, divided into five groups. Each department was asked to plan and try out one activity from each of the five groups. The supervisors were given the privilege of selecting the buildings.

These points were emphasized in a special supervisory bulletin, describing this "try-out" program.

The following program of activities to be performed by special supervisors is experimental. It is based upon the following assumptions:

1. Variation in supervisory attack is stimulating.
2. All supervision in order to be effective must be based upon teacher needs.
3. The training of principals is an integral part of special supervision.
4. If special supervisors are to function and maintain their places as experts, it follows that they must be authorities in the objectives and technics of supervision of their special fields; but, at the same time, they must lead in the organization of the service rendered to the schools.
5. The desirable program is one in which the principal assumes the responsibility for carrying on the work in the special fields and calling on the supervisor for assistance where help is needed.

At the present time, principals are accepting supervision as it is given from the central office. Yet, there are great variations in the type of service rendered by the various departments. Contradictory practices indicate that we have much to learn regarding the most effective type of supervision. Certain departments spend their entire time demonstrating. Other departments do no illustrative teaching. Some departments announce all visits, some place many visits on the "on call" basis, and others visit unannounced. If the supervisor assumes the lead and asks the principals to cooperate in experimentation for the purpose of obtaining more effective ways of rendering supervisory service, this project will become a training one for both supervisor and principal, which in the end should result in a better understanding of the problems involved in the supervision of special subjects.

Each supervisor is asked to set up situations and experiment in many of the following types of supervisory service. A report is to be made to the group in general. This report will include two things:

1. The results of the practice in the types of supervision listed
2. The formulation of a tentative program for supervision for the coming school year.

The principals in the buildings selected for the "try-outs" were much interested in the changes in procedures of the different departments. Many supervisors who felt that they had reached the highest pinnacle in perfecting a particular type of demonstration found out that they probably can get much through a change in their supervisory practices.

At this stage of the study on special supervision, it became necessary to divide the work according to the organization of teachers within each department.

The following groups were suggested:

Group 1—Teachers of special subjects
Group 2—Teachers of elementary grades who teach all subjects including the special subjects
Group 3—Teachers new to Minneapolis
Group 4—Special groups whose work is under the direction of a supervisor or director.

Step VI—The Major Functions of the Supervisor and Principal in the Special Subjects

Three groups of people working independently prepared bulletins covering this subject. The three groups consisted of a supervisors' committee, selected by the supervisory group; a principals' committee, selected by the Principals' Forum; a group of administrators, including the superintendent, assistant to superintendent, and director of administrative research. The committee reports were combined by the superintendent of schools and his assistants. This combined report was discussed and revised by both the supervisors' committee, the principals' committee, and the professional committee of the principals.

Step VII—Presentation of the Supervisory Program for the School Year 1929-30

Each supervisor was requested to prepare in typewritten form, according to an outline, a statement of his tentative program. These programs are assimilated by the assistant to the superintendent and presented to the group as a whole for discussion. The material for discussion will be in the hands of each member of the group three days before the date set for meetings. This is done at the beginning of the year following the building survey and "try-out" programs. Thus it enables each supervisor to incorporate into his year's work those activities which he has tried out and which he has found successful. This requires that he think through his program for the year and formulate a tentative form for guidance. The discussion by the group as a whole of the entire program of special supervision is also stimulating and helpful. Many programs will be changed according to policies of special supervision accepted by the group as a whole.

There are still unsolved problems. As the need arises, each problem will be incorporated into the study program.

Training of Supervisors in Service in Cleveland, Ohio[1]

Every Friday morning at 9 o'clock during the school year, department heads and supervisors in the educational departments of the Cleveland schools sit for an hour and a half in a semi-circle in the school headquarters library to consider the problems of education in this city of a million people.

Customarily the group numbers forty to fifty individuals, and in addition to the department heads and supervisors it invariably includes the dean of the city teacher-training college and his assistant, the director of the Cleveland educational museum, and, on occasion as an invited guest, the superintendent of schools in one of the city's suburbs, or such visiting dignitaries of education as may happen to be in the city.

These are the Friday headquarters staff meetings which have become traditional in the Cleveland system. They were conceived thirteen years ago, and they have continued without interruption since that time.

Every Thursday afternoon a mimeographed notice, laid on the desk of each person affected, serves to remind him of the staff meeting the following day. There are few rules for the conduct of the conferences. The meetings begin promptly at 9 and terminate promptly at 10:30. No one is excused from attendance, except for illness or absence from the city, and punctuality is insisted upon. Stragglers are not permitted to interrupt the conference. Superintendent R. G. Jones presides. The first four or five minutes are devoted to general remarks and the introduction of the speaker. Forty minutes are devoted to the formal presentation of a thesis by the invited speaker. Another forty minutes are consumed in general and untrammeled discussion. Any remaining time is used by the superintendent of schools in summarizing the discussion or in tracing the conclusions that may flow from it.

The name of the person who is to speak is not announced to the staff in advance. Nor is his topic. The reason for this is that the members of the staff, not being forewarned, are unable to build up a resistance against the thesis the speaker is to present or defend. So far as it is humanly possible to achieve it, the members of the staff come to the meeting with mental slates sponged clean of preconceived ideas, notions, and defenses.

Definite topics are assigned. Chautauqua generalities are not wanted. The topic is definite. The speaker has been summoned because of his ability or reputation in the field which the topic represents. He is expected to speak to the point and concretely. "Pep" talks and sentimental effusions are ruled out.

The speaker is assured in advance as to the character of his audience. Newspaper reporters are not present. The Cleveland schools have nothing to conceal from either the public or the press, but experience shows that the presence of reporters often has the effect of slowing up the free exchange of ideas. Speaking in the presence of reporters causes many persons to be so guarded in their utterance as to becloud their meaning, if the presence of reporters does not, indeed, awe them into silence.

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[1] Prepared by Fred Charles, Director of Publications, Cleveland Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

So much for the purely mechanical aspects of the superintendent's staff meetings.

The educational value of the open forum, with its free interplay of minds, is generally conceded. One is required to stand on his own feet and defend his ideas in open meeting. False theory cannot survive the effective, even though polite, attack of hostile critics.

At least half of those invited to address the staff each year are themselves members of the staff. The director of educational research reports upon the work he is doing, and is obliged to make the corrections which criticism may indicate. An assistant superintendent who questions the value of some of our forms of supervision is invited to present his thesis—and to defend it. The effects of this policy have been highly beneficial to the entire organization.

A generous board of education has placed at the disposal of the superintendent a fund to finance incidental expenses of the staff meetings. Though limited, the fund has enabled the superintendent to draw talent from considerable distances. In some cases a small honorarium is paid. In others, speakers are reimbursed for traveling expenses. Members of the Cleveland staff, of course, speak when invited in the regular line of duty without compensation.

A brief review of the staff meetings for one year may serve to indicate their character:

An assistant superintendent of the Cleveland schools spoke on some of the more pressing problems of the elementary schools.

The principal of a city high school, whose institution is devoted to high scholarship which he tests with a generous use of the college board examinations, outlined the methods he has used to stimulate high achievement on the part of pupils.

A German educator, temporarily in the United States, gave the background of the educational reorganizations now proceeding in his country.

An outstanding Cleveland engineer reviewed city planning in Cleveland and forecast the probable future development of the city.

An elementary supervisor, who had been sent to another city to study an experiment in year 'round schooling, reported upon her observations.

The architect for the Cleveland Board of Education, using lantern slides and charts, reviewed 100 years of school architecture in Cleveland, tracing the evolution of school architecture in its efforts to adapt materials and space to the changing character of education.

The first assistant superintendent of Cleveland schools analyzed the job of the school principal, and reported upon effective experiments in organization.

The director of health education in Cleveland schools reported upon the findings of physical examinations of thousands of Cleveland children, and outlined the course of study in health education which has been written in an effort to eliminate physical defects.

The vice president of a large Cleveland bank discussed investments, and suggested safe investment plans which, he thought, salaried persons such as teachers might follow to advantage. The fact that hundreds of teachers are victimized annually by blue-sky promoters has deeply interested the superintendent in attempting to educate the teaching force to invest wisely. It was his hope that the advice of the banker would percolate through the entire school system.

An Austrian educator, touring in America, discussed recent educational innovations in his country with particular reference to creative work in the arts. A direct outcome of this discussion was a renewed interest in creative art in the Cleveland schools, coupled with a search for an encouragement of outstanding talent.

The dean of the college of education of Western Reserve University spoke on teacher training.

The directing supervisor of adult education in the Cleveland schools reviewed the history of adult education, and sketched the methods now being employed in this field.

A Northwestern University professor spoke on the relationship between voice and appearance, stressing the importance of a well-modulated voice and clear enunciation on the part of the teacher.

The head of an ambitious guidance program in a Cleveland high school discussed the purpose and operation of guidance.

An assistant superintendent of the Cleveland schools outlined the board of education's building program.

A veteran British educator described educational organization and methods in England.

A professor in Teachers College, Columbia University, noted as somewhat conservative in his educational views, addressed the staff, voicing a caution against extremes in "progressive" education.

An architect of international celebrity told the staff how he plans a building.

The manager of a Cleveland radio station discussed the development of radio, the psychology of broadcasting, and forecast some possible educational uses for radio.

The president of Oberlin College discussed the organization of his institution and other institutions of college rank, and indicated what he expects of high-school graduates who enter college and what, in his judgment, are some of the shortcomings in high-school education.

The research director for the National Education Association described the research problems of education on a national scale.

The directing principal of special schools in Cleveland described the work of his schools with special emphasis on the teaching of the mental defective.

A professor of history in Ohio State University discussed effective methods of teaching history.

An elementary supervisor in the Cleveland schools outlined the work of a school set aside for the intensive study of a curriculum in elementary science. This address was enlivened by a recitation of a group of pupils from the school.

A professor of English in Western Reserve University spoke on English teaching.

An assistant superintendent of the Cleveland schools, who is critical of some phases of supervision as now organized, suggested what he believes to be a better plan.

A representative of the Child Guidance Clinic in New York reported on a study made in Cleveland schools of the effect of children's deportment on the marks given by teachers.

A Toronto artist, who since has joined the staff of Western Reserve University and who is to serve the Cleveland schools as a consultant in art, spoke on the discovery of artistic talent.

Naturally, not all of these staff meetings were of equal value. Despite all that decently can be done to prevent it, a speaker occasionally comes ill-prepared and floundering in banalities. Needless to say, members of the staff who are asked to speak do not commit this error. Few will consent to appear without at least a month of preparation.

Business men and other "outsiders" who speak are frequently more notable in method than in substance. The professional educator is given an insight into the thinking of the business executive. He sees how the engineer and the architect handle their problems and often there is a value to this that can be applied to the problems of the school administrator. The educator who must think through his problems gains in technic by learning how other executives think through their problems.

The staff meeting is the standard for all meetings held throughout the school system.

The Cleveland staff feels that these meetings have been as valuable in educating them as any course of college lectures could be. This has, indeed, been a course in educational administration and method without the term papers and the examinations. In place of the unsupported wisdom of one oracle, the group has had the ripe judgment of many individuals tried in many situations, on many subjects.

Occasionally someone jots down a note or two on the back of an envelope, but there is none of that elaborate and futile scribbling which so disconcerts a speaker, and which involves the note-taker so much in the mechanics of writing that he ceases to listen.

The members of the Cleveland staff have approached these meetings not as inferiors approach the feet of the mighty, but as equals and co-workers. The meetings have been intrinsically honest. There has been no attempt on the part of the superintendent to use the meetings to propagandize the staff in behalf of any theory of education or any doctrine. Every point of view is presented, and every legitimate question is answered.

Every executive and supervisor in the school headquarters organization has been lifted for an hour or two once a week from the narrow niche in which he functions and made a part of the larger group in which policies are discussed and decisions made. Each thus learns something of the work and the methods of his fellow workers. He learns to see the relationship of his contribution to that of every other worker in the system.

Education, like every other endeavor, has become highly specialized. The schoolmaster of other years has been succeeded by experts in intelligence testing, in educational research, in child accounting, in music supervision, in curriculum building. All of us need the occasional reminder that though our functions are specialized, together we form the whole which exists for one purpose only—the education of the children entrusted to us.

The Cleveland staff meeting has brought this feeling of solidarity. It has brought the feeling of loyalty of each to his fellows and to the cause of education. It has fostered the growth of independence and of self-respect, without which any job soon becomes intolerable.

Training of Supervisors in Service in Kerens, Texas

High-grade work in training supervisors in service can be carried on in small towns, as well as in larger cities. Superintendent Hendricks of Kerens, Texas, a town with 900 pupils and 23 teachers, describes his program as follows:

Twenty-three teachers, including the members of the administrative staff, are employed. Of the number employed, the following are designated as supervising officers:

1. Supervising superintendent
2. Supervising principals
3. Supervising teachers.

Prior to a discussion of the training of these supervising officers, it might be well to state that the selection of each officer for the particular work he or she is to do is as important, if not more so, than the training of this officer after the appointment. In fact, the type of supervising officer, the work assigned, the personal equipment of the supervisor, his or her need for training, and the previous experience and training, will all tend to influence the specific type of training to be decided upon.

The chief means for training supervisory officers in the Kerens, Texas, school system may be classified as follows:

1. Personal example set by the superintendent
2. Well-planned group meetings
3. Personal conferences

4. Requirements of written plans and written reports on visits and conferences
5. Administration of testing programs
6. Suggestion of summer school attendance as to where to attend, what courses to pursue, and the instructors to select
7. Suggestion of professional readings
8. Visitation program to other school systems selected carefully according to the immediate needs.
9. Providing each supervising officer with:
    a. Special magazines and periodicals
    b. Special professional books
    c. Duplicating machines
    d. Filing cabinets and such materials of this nature as are needed for efficient results
    e. Such supervisory and curriculum materials as have been worked out in the best school systems in the country
10. Encouraging attendance upon meetings in the state and national associations of the departments concerning the particular supervising officer
11. Preparation of school exhibits.

The supervising officers are assigned definite duties to perform, shown how to perform these duties, provided with essential equipment, given the authority to administer the work, and then held responsible for the results insofar as their part of the work is concerned.

The Training of Elementary Supervisors in Service in Maryland Counties

A. Regional Meetings of Supervisors

These meetings are held for the purpose of visiting schools within a county and studying the work of a fellow supervisor. To illustrate, in 1926, three groups of meetings were held in Washington County, Baltimore County, and Talbot County, on December 4-5, December 11-12, and January 15-16, respectively. The program of each meeting included visits to the county schools the morning of the first day; observance of a county teachers' meeting conducted in the afternoon by a supervisor in the county visited; an evening conference conducted by the assistant state supervisor of elementary schools to discuss the work seen during the day; and a conference on general supervisory problems the following morning, conducted by the assistant state superintendent in charge of elementary instruction.

The visiting supervisors were divided into committees and given the following plan for discussion, each committee being held responsible for one question. There were slight modifications so that the questions fitted each of the meetings.

Please give some thought to all of the following questions and intensive study to the question assigned to the committee to which you are appointed.

1. To what extent did the work as planned and executed fulfil the purpose or purposes of the supervisor?
2. In what specific ways were the various types of teachers helped? (What knowledge, suggestive procedures, principles, devices, standards, inspiration, etc., were gained?)

3. Discuss the supervisor's technic as evidenced by his method of questioning, method of handling teachers' contributions, organization of materials and activities, method of clinching and summarizing, and any other phases of teaching technic involved.
4. Evaluate the meeting from the standpoint of teacher participation—realization of its purpose, preparation for it, feeling of responsibility for its success, participation in discussions and other activities, interest, background of knowledge, attitude, and teacher leadership.
5. What do you consider the chief values to be gained by the visiting supervisors from this teachers' meeting?
6. What indications of the objectives of the supervisors were in evidence in the work of the teachers visited?

Prior to attendance upon the group meeting, visiting supervisors had been sent the following Assignment for Observation of the Teachers' Meeting:

Assignment for Observation of the Teachers' Meeting

Make a plan for yourself which will help you to observe the meeting with specific questions in mind and to organize the procedure around definite problems.

In making your plan you might take into consideration some of the following factors:

1. Purpose of the meeting—its relation to group needs, and to individual needs.
2. Plan of the meeting—its relation to supervisory objectives, development of the teachers, past meetings, particular teaching or administrative difficulties.
3. Provision for review, drill, development and discussion of new problems or procedures.
4. Provision for teacher participation and method of handling teachers' contributions.
5. Provision for meeting individual needs, for adapting the work to the needs of all present.
6. Organization of materials and activities—relative values as evidenced by distribution of time and emphasis.
7. Character of the help received by individuals—knowledge, ideas, principles, devices, standards.
8. Power of the group—knowledge, attitude, and skills, evidenced by the teachers.
9. Supervisor's philosophy of supervision as evidenced by his plan and method of conducting the meeting, by its tone or atmosphere, by the attitude of the teachers.
10. Supervisor's technic of supervision.

On Saturday morning, the supervisors under the leadership of the assistant state superintendent in charge of elementary instruction, discussed "Pertinent Problems in Supervision" connected with course-of-study making, strengthening the teaching in grades 6 and 7, and lesson planning.

The supervisors were given the following suggestive procedure for committee work to be used in making a course of study in any subject:

The Course of Study in Geography

(Suggestive Procedure for Committee Work)

1. Preparation of the committee by reading and study:

   a. General reading on curriculum making.
   b. Books and magazine articles on teaching of geography.
   c. Best courses of study in geography.

2. Committee decides what a course of study in geography should contain:

   a. Statement of principles and aims of geography teaching.
   b. Goals for each grade.
   c. Activities through which goals may be reached.
   d. Principles underlying problem solving.
   e. Criteria for judging value of geography problems and activities.
   f. A teachers' and a pupils' bibliography.

3. Each member of the committee makes goals for each grade.
4. Committee meets to discuss and agree upon goals.
5. Chairman of committee meets teachers of different grades and compiles goals expressed in terms of:

Knowledge to be acquired	Activities to be developed	Skills to be attained	Attitudes to be instilled

6. Collect from teachers of various grades suggested activities to develop the goals:

   a. Statement of problems.
   b. Devices for drill.
   c. Estimates of amount of time to be spent on various units of work.
   d. Projects or types of work.
   (Chairman sorts out best of all material submitted.)

7. Chairman compiles statement of the general aims and principles of geography teaching; of principles underlying the teaching of geography through problems; of criteria for judging the value of problems and various activities in geography.

   (Chairman submits material to committee for criticism and approval.)

8. Compile a teachers' and pupils' bibliography for each grade, also a list of sources from which geography material may be obtained.

B. Summer School Course in Supervision in Maryland

This new activity was attempted in Maryland in the summer of 1925. The instructors were the two supervisors of elementary schools from the state department of education. It was planned that the class be limited to 25 persons engaged in or preparing for county-wide supervision in Maryland. Twenty-seven people were admitted, however, representing 19 counties. The four counties not represented were Cecil, Kent, Wicomico, and Howard. The students of the course gave all of their time to the work, for which they received university credit. Although conducted at the Maryland State Normal School at Towson, the course was one of the summer courses scheduled by the Johns Hopkins University, and was thus outlined in the university's summer catalog:

> This course on the theory and practice of supervision of elementary schools in the Maryland county system is designed to make detailed analysis of actual teaching procedures, to conduct conferences with individual teachers, and to plan for teachers' meetings. The development of the course is based on extensive observation of classroom teaching in one-teacher, two-teacher, and graded demonstration schools. Opportunity is given to individuals to work on special problems related to their respective counties.

The course was organized by the instructors under five heads; namely,

Supervision as a Profession
Objective Standards Common to Supervisor and Teacher
Essential Characteristics of Varied Types of Lessons
The Judgment and Criticism of Teaching
The Planning and Conduct of Teachers' Meetings.

The practical results of the course are evident in the improved character of almost every phase of supervisory activity in the counties, and in the greater enthusiasm which the supervisors bring to their work.

CHAPTER X

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE THROUGH SUPERVISION

THE TITLE of this chapter makes two important implications, which may profitably be stated at the outset. The first is that all teachers in service, experienced as well as inexperienced, are in need of training after appointment; and the second is that it is the function of supervision to train teachers in service.

Certain assumptions are made, in the discussion of this subject, which should also be understood by the reader: First, that we are concerned with the improvement of teachers in service who have had specific academic and professional preparation for their work; and second, that the supervisor and the administrative officers exercising supervision are as adequately qualified for their work as the teachers whom they supervise are qualified for theirs.

In the development of the general theme of this chapter it is further assumed that even though both teachers and supervisors deal with the common problem of teaching pupils, nevertheless teachers and supervisors have separate and distinct functions to perform in a school system; that the efficiency of a school system depends on the satisfactory discharge of both functions; and that the success of a teacher or of a supervisor depends largely on specific and adequate preparation for his special function.

The recognition and adoption of this general point of view will necessitate certain changes in past practices. For example, the practice of rewarding a teacher of long and successful experience by promotion to a supervisory position will have to be abandoned. The Commission believes that it takes more than length of teaching service to make a successful supervisor. The Commission holds the view that specific, systematic study of the principles and practices of supervision in an institution of recognized standing under competent instructors should be added to a highly successful teaching experience.[1]

All Teachers in Service Need Training

Every important condition attending the preparation, appointment, and salaries of teachers contemplates improvement after appointment. The limited amount of practice teaching provided in our best normal schools and teachers colleges, the appointment for a probationary period of time, the salary schedule providing for increased pay from year to year—all indicate that the teacher is not fully equipped for the profession when appointed; that he is expected further to prepare himself to become a better teacher after appointment, and that the increased financial reward usually provided each year in the regular salary schedule is intended for increased professional service on the part of the teacher for a number of years after appointment.

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[1] See pages 223-7 as to amount of professional training and experience required of supervisors in the twenty states which grant special certificates in supervision.

Training course short—Whether the course of teacher training be two, three, or four years, the amount of systematic practice teaching under supervision which can be provided is far too limited to introduce the prospective teacher to the many and diversified conditions which a prospective teacher is likely to meet on his initial appointment, whether in a small rural community or in a large city. The time is too short, and the opportunities for practice teaching are too limited, even in our best training schools, to duplicate the conditions ordinarily found in the public schools of a state or city.

No matter how thorough is the instruction in theory, or how extensive is the practice teaching in our teacher-training institutions, the educational principles taught therein will be understood, appreciated, and put into successful use only when illuminated by the light of actual teaching experience. The full significance of the principles of education and of teaching will be realized only as they are studied, applied, and practiced in the effort of the teacher to develop an art as well as a science in teaching.

The institutional training of prospective teachers should provide them with a knowledge of fundamental principles of education and of classroom teaching on the basis of which they may develop their own technics, under sympathetic and constructive supervision. In general, the pre-service training in an institution must deal with general principles, while the in-service training in actual teaching must deal with the details of classroom practices and technics. This latter work of training in service is usually the function of the supervisor.

Probationary period—In our best school systems of the nation today, teachers are appointed for a probationary period of one or more years. This probationary year clearly implies improvement of the inexperienced teacher or of the experienced teacher under new conditions.

Annual salary increase—The usual salary schedule provides a minimum salary with an annual increase in compensation over a period of years, and a maximum salary. The minimum salary is intended to be a living wage for the inexperienced teacher. The maximum salary should be a more nearly adequate compensation for successful teachers of experience. The annual increase in compensation is obviously intended to pay for increased service resulting from experience and from professional improvement after appointment.

The conditions that have been established relating to the preparation, appointment, and compensation of teachers show that the public expects improvement of teachers after appointment and has a right to expect improved service. The teaching profession is expected to assume the responsibility for making such improvement.

Causes of Teacher Failure

It should be axiomatic that knowledge on the part of both teacher and supervisor of the causes of failure in teaching must precede any attempt to provide a remedy for failure. Since the introduction of more scientific procedures and practices into school organization, administration, and teaching, much attention has been given to the reasons why teachers fail.

One of the latest and most comprehensive studies of teaching and the direction of teaching by supervisors is to be found in *Visiting the Teacher at Work,* by Anderson, Barr, and Bush.[1] After discussing various cases of failures and successes on the part of teachers relating to the technic of teaching, the authors devote another chapter to remedial measures for types of failures other than teaching technic.

The authors quote a list of causes of failure among elementary school teachers as revealed by Lettler's questionnaire study[2] based upon 281 replies.

On the basis of these cases and other similar studies, the authors have listed 17 causes of failure which they set up as types. Their list is as follows:

Type 1. *Lack of control over the technic of teaching.* The teacher may be totally ignorant of the science of teaching or unable to apply its principles. She does not know how to teach.

Type 2. *Lack of ability to maintain order and discipline.* The teacher fails to command attention. The room is in confusion.

Type 3. *Lack of mastery of subject-matter.* The teacher does not know her subject. This difficulty appears more frequently on the high-school level.

Type 4. *Lack of intelligence.* The teacher lacks native ability to cope with the situation.

Type 5. *Lack of effort.* Either because of lack of physical energy or constitutional dislike for work, the teacher fails. She fails to make the necessary preparation; she fails to care for routine matters; she fails to put forth the effort necessary for success.

Type 6. *Lack of initiative.* The teacher does everything that she is told to do but does nothing more. She is entirely incapable of acting upon abstract principles.

Type 7. *Lack of adaptability.* The teacher fails to adapt herself to the principal, the other teachers, the community, or the pupils. She is a potential trouble-maker. She may be good enough in her classroom, but she fails to establish proper relations with the rest of the building. She is individualistic, generally disgruntled, and antagonistic.

Type 8. *Lack of common sense.* The teacher fails to size up the situation. She lacks the good judgment to see that certain things are out of place. She moves either too rapidly or too slowly. She is always in difficulties.

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[1] Anderson, C. J.; Barr, A. S.; and Bush, Maybell G., *Visiting the Teacher at Work; Case Studies of Directed Teaching.* New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1925. 382 pp. See especially Chapters X and XI, pp. 295-348.

[2] Lettler, Sherman, "Why Teachers Fail," *Home and School Education,* Vol. XXXIII, March, 1914, p. 255.

Type 9. *Lack of physical ability.* The teacher is in ill health, acknowledged or concealed. She may be nervous, irritable, or otherwise disagreeable. She may lack the physical energy to do good work.

Type 10. *Lack of standards.* The teacher does not know what is expected of her. She is perfectly capable, but does not know prevailing standards of teaching.

Type 11. *Lack of ability to carry on.* The teacher becomes discouraged at the attitude of the principal, poor work of pupils, etc. She looks continually for new and better pastures.

Type 12. *Lack of singleness of purpose.* The teacher has too many outside interests—real estate, family, social obligations, etc. She is not willing to share with others the many extra burdens and assignments of the school.

Type 13. *Lack of sympathetic understanding of pupils.* The teacher fails to get the pupils' point of view. She has the wrong attitude. She has lost all recollections of the pleasures, wishes, and hopes of childhood. She is out of sympathy with those things that children love and cherish most.

Type 14. *Lack of social background.* The teacher fails because of a limited social background. The community and the children are rich in social experience and are aware of the difference. The children laugh at her.

Type 15. *Lack of knowledge of what pupils can do.* The teacher does not know what to expect of pupils. She has no notion of difficulty levels. She does not know what is difficult to the child. She lacks standards of judgment.

Type 16. *Lack of personality.* The teacher lacks force—spiritual, social, and physical. She fails to radiate life and enthusiasm.

Type 17. *Lack of moral standards.* The teacher is not honest with herself and with other teachers. She fails to show moral stamina in her many personal relationships about the school.

The authors present helpful observations concerning each one of these types.

Good Supervision a Necessity

Whether it be the beginning teacher or the experienced teacher, the most potent single factor in his improvement is intelligent supervision. Intelligent supervision encourages the initiative and freedom of the highly successful teacher and aims to make such success general; enlists and secures the sympathic cooperation of teacher and supervisory officer in their common undertaking; promotes systematic self-interest and self-activity among teachers in their professional improvement; and, in general, stimulates both teachers and supervisors to study what they are doing, what they are doing it for, and why they are doing it in that particular way.

No educational literature however suggestive, no professional courses however praiseworthy, and no administrative procedures however well intended to prompt the improvement of teachers in service, can take the place of the well-trained, experienced, and forward-looking supervisor to whom every teacher should be able to look for helpful advice, profitable suggestions, and inspiration for the improvement of his work.

Educational literature and professional courses, and the administrative provisions for encouraging self-improvement will have little or no effect on the teaching profession in any community unless the school system provides intelligent and progressive educational leadership in the administrative and supervisory positions in the school system.

Educational leadership of supervisors—Superintendents, assistant superintendents, building principals, directors of special subjects, heads of departments in high schools, and all the other officials who make up the administrative and supervisory staff are employed for the purpose of furnishing the necessary educational leadership to keep the school system not only a going concern, but operating at its highest degree of efficiency. Under the skillful leadership of administrative and supervisory officers, teachers of the school system can best clarify and make effective the aims and purposes of their work, discuss and improve their methods of teaching, adapt the schools to serve the children, and rejoice in the improved results that come from their combined effort.

The right kind of supervision and educational leadership can be furnished only by persons who have been as definitely prepared for this highly specialized work as have the teachers whom they supervise been prepared for teaching.[1]

Under some salary schedules it frequently happens that a superior teacher is rewarded in salary by being promoted to the principalship of a school which he or she fills with only second-rate success. The only remedy for this practice is adequate provision in salary for superior teachers, and insistence on the part of the school authorities that persons shall be appointed to supervisory positions only when they shall have made adequate preparation for supervisory work. It takes more than a successful teacher to be a successful supervisor or administrative officer. Every successful supervisor should have been a superior teacher, but in addition he must possess those qualities of leadership, inspiring personality, professional wisdom, knowledge of the science and philosophy of education, wise discretion, and the many other qualities that characterize the successful educational leaders in our profession who today are serving in supervisory positions.

Public schools are organized for the purpose of providing instruction and training for the boys and girls of this generation in order that they may be worthy citizens in our democracy of tomorrow. Whatever may be the faults of the schools, the sober, sane judgment of all thinking people is, and will continue to be, that the public schools are the most potent, most powerful, and most promising single agency making for the unification, stability, and progress of our American institutions.

For carrying on a program of public education, the public employs teachers and officers. While the work of teachers and officers is differentiated in the organization of school systems, both groups in the teaching profession are rendering indispensable public service. Education is more and more coming to be recognized as a science in which new discoveries are made from day to day. The generally accepted principles of education today are not the same as those that guided educators a generation ago. It is one of the important duties and responsibilities of the teaching profession that the educational program in our public schools shall keep pace and be closely identified with the most progressive current of public life.

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[1] For more extensive treatment of this topic, see Chapter IX of this Yearbook, "Training for Supervision."

Aids to Training from Without the School System

The many opportunities offered teachers for self-improvement are convincing evidence of the widespread recognition of its importance. Educational journals, new professional books, bulletins, extension and summer courses in colleges and universities provide the supervisor and the teacher with readily accessible means of further professional training after appointment. In the United States today training agencies for the improvement of our teachers and supervisors are continually increasing in number and expanding in activities.

Professional reading—There are educational journals devoted to nearly every phase of the educational problem: psychology, administration and supervision, elementary schools, secondary schools, educational research, vocational education, vocational guidance, English, geography, history, mathematics, and so on through practically every subject with which public education is concerned. The subscription lists of these journals do not show that they are read by the profession as generally as the wealth and value of the material which they contain would justify.

New books on educational theory and practice come from our leading publishing houses every month of the year. For the most part they deal critically with present-day practices and indicate new lines of educational progress.

These books are the basis of instruction in our teacher-training institutions. They are used extensively in reading circles of teachers in those states where such circles have been organized. And they are used by supervisors in their teacher-training activities.

State departments of education are preparing and issuing not only courses of study including suggestions to teachers, but also bulletins on many phases of the educational problem intended to help teachers to help themselves, as well as to furnish material to be used by the supervisor and the teacher in professional meetings and individual conferences.

The following list of titles of bulletins will indicate the variety and character of such bulletins:

Illustrations of Bulletins Helpful in the In-Service Training of Teachers[1]

I. National Education Association Publications:

- A. Research Bulletins, such as:
    1. *Keeping Pace With the Advancing Curriculum,* Vol. III, Nos. 4 and 5, September and November, 1925. 96 pp.
    2. *A Handbook of Major Educational Issues,* Vol. IV, No. 4, September, 1926. 72 pp.
    3. *Creating a Curriculum for Adolescent Youth,* Vol. VI, No. 1, January, 1928. 80 pp.
    4. *The Principal Studies His Job,* Vol. VI, No. 2, March, 1928. 68 pp.
    5. *The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education,* Vol. VII, No. 2, March, 1929. 60 pp.
    6. *Vitalizing the High-School Curriculum,* Vol. VII, No. 4, September, 1929. 104 pp.
    7. *The Principal as a Supervisor,* Vol. VII, No. 5, November, 1929. 84 pp.
- B. Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence, such as:
    1. Third Yearbook, *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum,* 1925.
    2. Fourth Yearbook, *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum,* 1926.
    3. Fifth Yearbook, *The Junior High School Curriculum,* 1927.
    4. Sixth Yearbook, *The Development of the High School Curriculum,* 1928.
    5. Seventh Yearbook, *The Articulation of the Units of American Education,* 1929.
- C. Bulletins of the Department of Elementary School Principals, such as:
    1. Vol. VI, No. 3, April, 1927 (Sixth Yearbook)—*Projects in Supervision.*
    2. Vol. VII, No. 3, April, 1928 (Seventh Yearbook)—*The Elementary School Principalship.*
    3. Vol. VIII, No. 3, April, 1929 (Eighth Yearbook)—*Activities of the Principal.*
- D. The Journal of the National Education Association, published monthly except July, August, and September.

II. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletins, such as:

- A. *1927:*
    - No. 8, Recent Movements in City School Systems, W. S. Deffenbaugh.
    - No. 16, The Reading of Modern Foreign Languages, M. V. O'Shea.
    - No. 17, Typical Child Care and Parenthood Education in Home Economics Departments, Emeline S. Whitcomb.
    - No. 20, Playgrounds of the Nation, Florence C. Fox.
    - No. 26, Trends in the Development of Secondary Education, Eustace E. Windes.
- B. *1928:*
    - No. 6, Professional Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools, Katherine M. Cook.
    - No. 15, Educational Achievements of One-Teacher and of Larger Rural Schools, Timon Covert.
    - No. 28, The Rural Junior High School, E. N. Ferriss.
- C. *1929:*
    - No. 3, Some Essential Viewpoints in Supervision of Rural Schools, Katherine M. Cook.

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[1] This list of agencies which issue professional bulletins is merely illustrative, not comprehensive, as is also the list of bulletins included under each agency.

III. State Department of Education Bulletins, such as:

- A. Wisconsin:
  Wisconsin Rural School Standards, Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wis., 1925.
- B. Maryland:
  1. *High School Teachers' Meetings, The Marking System and Teachers' Grades* (a reprint from Vol. IX, No. 1), Vol. IX, No. 2, December, 1927. 48 pp.
  2. *Sidelights on the Supervision of Primary Grades,* Vol. IX, No. 3, December, 1927. 150 pp.
  3. *Curriculum Making in Problems of American Democracy,* Vol. X, No. 2, September, 1928. 46 pp.
  4. *Supervisory Activities in Maryland 1927-28,* Vol. X, No. 3, September, 1928. 95 pp.
  5. *Progress of Maryland Counties in Reduction of Number of Over-Age Pupils, 1925-1927,* Vol. X, No. 4, September, 1928. 35 pp.
- C. California:
  1. *Secondary Education in California,* California State Printing Office, Sacramento, Calif., 1929. 128 pp.
- D. Illinois:
  1. *The Rural One-Teacher Schools of Illinois,* Circular No. 234, prepared by U. J. Hoffman, State Supervisor of Rural Schools. Published by the Illinois State Board of Education, 1929. 96 pp.
- E. Maine:
  1. *To Teachers—Suggested Readings,* A bibliography of professional books and magazines. Published by the Department of Education, Augusta, Maine, 1929. 21 pp.
  2. *High-School Manual;* State of Maine, Department of Education, 1929.
- F. Tennessee:
  Educational Bulletin, Issued monthly by the State Department of Education.
- G. Virginia:
  Bulletin, State Board of Education, issued quarterly. See:
  1. Vol. X, No. 3, March, 1928, *Efficiency in Relation to Size of High Schools.*
  2. Vol. XI, No. 1, August, 1928. Supplement No. 3, *Teachers' Reading Courses, School Year 1928-29.*

IV. County Supervisory Bulletins, such as:

- A. *Supervisory Program for the Cuyahoga County Public Schools,* A Handbook prepared by County Superintendent A. O. Yawberg. Published by Cuyahoga County, Ohio, Board of Education, 1922.

  See also the following handbooks for teachers issued by the Cuyahoga County Public Schools, 1922-23:
  1. The Development of Initiative
  2. The Art of Questioning
  3. Fundamentals of the Daily Program
  4. The Lesson Assignment
  5. The Proper Use of the Textbook
  6. The Lesson Plan.
- B. *Alameda County Public Health News,* published monthly by the Health Education Department of the Public Health Center of Alameda County, Calif.

V. City Superintendent of Schools and City Board of Education Bulletins, such as:

A. *The Detroit Educational Bulletin,* published monthly for the teachers of Detroit by the Board of Education, Detroit, Mich.

B. *The Oakland Public Schools,* Superintendent's Bulletin, an official bulletin issued weekly.

C. *Public School Messenger,* Official publication of the Department of Instruction of the St. Louis Public Schools. Edited by the Division of Tests and Measurements.

D. *Curriculum Study and Educational Research Bulletin,* The Pittsburgh Public Schools, published bi-monthly, in October, December, February, April, and June by the Board of Public Education, Pittsburgh, Pa.

E. *Kansas City School Service Bulletin,* published by the Executive Department of the Kansas City, Mo., Public Schools.

F. *Hamtramck Public School Bulletin,* published monthly except July and August for the teachers of Hamtramck by the authority of the Board of Education, Hamtramck, Mich.

See also: *Creative Teaching in the Field of Spelling,* Creative Supervision Monograph No. 1, published by the Board of Education, Hamtramck, Mich., 1928.

G. *El Paso Schools Standard,* the official publication of the city schools of El Paso, Texas.

H. *Denver Public Schools Bulletin,* published monthly except June, July, and August by authority of the Board of Education, Denver, Colo.

I. *Chicago Schools Journal,* published by the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, monthly, September to June.

J. *The School Magazine,* A Clearing House for the Various Departments of the Buffalo School System.

K. *Baltimore Bulletin of Education,* A journal of the public schools of Baltimore, Md., published monthly under authority of the Board of School Commissioners by the Bureau of Research.

L. *Educational Research Bulletin,* published monthly except during July and August, for the educational workers of Los Angeles by the Board of Education.

VI. Publications of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association (formerly National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction):

A. *Educational Method,* published by the Bureau of Publications of Teachers College for the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, monthly from October to June.

B. First Yearbook, *Educational Supervision,* and Second Yearbook, *Scientific Method in Supervision,* published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1928, 1929.

Educational courses—Colleges and universities have been prompt to recognize the need of providing courses for teachers and supervisors already in the professional service. These courses are offered as extension courses and are frequently given not only locally but in other parts remote from the city or town where the institution is located.

More far-reaching perhaps than the extension courses are the educational programs provided in the summer sessions of college and university. The tremendous increase in enrolment in the summer sessions of our colleges and universities is one of the outstanding developments of this generation in teacher-training institutions. See Table 37.

TABLE 37.—NUMBER OF PERSONS ENROLLED IN EDUCATION COURSES IN SUMMER SCHOOLS

States	Number enrolled summer of:				Percent of teachers enrolled in 1929
	1926[1]	1927[2]	1928[3]	1929[4]	
1	2	3	4	5	6
United States	218,695	249,268	282,068	270,237	29.1
Alabama	4,302	8,883	8,881	7,796	47.2
Arizona	873	585	1,255	962	30.1
Arkansas	1,639	2,136	3,337	3,288	25.8
California	5,883	12,118	15,622	11,167	27.9
Colorado	5,563	6,248	6,203	5,804	53.2
Connecticut	22	873	817	882	7.5
Delaware	272	237	243	257	16.1
District of Columbia	140	729	1,073	1,054	35.1
Florida	1,231	1,450	1,373	1,804	16.4
Georgia	2,347	3,778	4,725	5,107	26.9
Idaho	1,296	1,180	1,075	791	16.1
Illinois	15,145	12,700	15,781	13,499	28.4
Indiana	10,524	10,644	9,319	9,093	37.9
Iowa	6,059	6,562	7,775	6,695	28.5
Kansas	7,048	6,858	8,001	7,452	33.9
Kentucky	5,486	4,561	5,818	6,559	36.4
Louisiana	2,059	3,530	3,537	4,358	37.2
Maine	1,304	1,364	1,552	1,496	23.0
Maryland	1,548	1,428	1,836	1,590	18.7
Massachusetts	3,183	4,425	2,796	3,649	13.5
Michigan	8,161	8,437	8,809	7,876	24.2
Minnesota	3,789	4,300	5,084	4,833	19.3
Mississippi	1,570	1,707	2,373	2,590	16.2
Missouri	7,458	9,255	10,792	11,200	44.1
Montana	1,162	1,286	651	521	8.3
Nebraska	5,718	6,018	6,323	6,440	41.5
Nevada	139	88	100	111	12.3
New Hampshire	376	320	377	356	11.5
New Jersey	1,375	983	1,315	1,536	5.9
New Mexico	1,034	1,346	1,511	1,579	45.1
New York	15,978	19,887	21,611	21,403	28.5
North Carolina	7,862	8,152	10,767	8,100	32.9
North Dakota	4,297	3,573	3,547	3,232	35.9
Ohio	10,091	11,148	12,665	13,092	28.2
Oklahoma	11,223	8,894	12,171	12,607	64.7
Oregon	2,381	3,079	2,559	2,816	31.3
Pennsylvania	16,280	16,740	16,147	15,694	26.2
Rhode Island	369	459	457	215	5.4
South Carolina	2,868	2,355	2,593	2,737	18.9
South Dakota	2,378	1,933	2,411	2,066	21.7
Tennessee	7,615	7,228	9,280	11,326	62.9
Texas	8,429	14,155	18,817	21,575	46.9
Utah	395	1,337	866	1,014	20.3
Vermont	603	635	684	700	21.9
Virginia	4,455	5,856	6,397	6,036	32.6
Washington	3,873	4,457	3,761	4,039	33.7
West Virginia	3,874	4,922	4,679	5,513	34.5
Wisconsin	6,903	7,349	7,646	5,967	27.8
Wyoming	640	1,039	760	911	25.3
Hawaii	525	425	1,253	839	35.0
Philippine Islands	....	616	3,643	....	....
Porto Rico	950	1,000	1,000	....	....

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[1] From reports from 482 of the 661 institutions conducting summer schools.
[2] From reports from 596 of the 662 institutions conducting summer schools.
[3] From reports from 616 of the 626 institutions conducting summer schools.
[4] From reports from 661 of the 671 institutions conducting summer schools.

Aids to Training from Within the School System

Among the more important aids to teacher training which are found within the school system are teachers' institutes, teachers' meetings of various kinds, demonstration schools, self-improvement outlines, and experimentation. Each of these will be considered.

I. Teachers' Institutes

The teachers' institute is one of the oldest and best known forms of improving teachers in service. It is far less respected today than formerly.

Among the defects of the earlier teachers' institute as enumerated by Finegan[1] and reported by Morrison[2] were:

a. The "temptation to secure speakers solely because of their power to entertain an audience upon popular questions."
b. The employment of many local speakers "who had no message for anyone."
c. The popularity of "elocutionists."
d. The use of speakers who had books or other things to sell.
e. The employment of persons who believed "their appearance at institutes would further some cause or interest in which they were concerned."
f. The refusal of teachers to attend sessions which did not interest them.

The Commission condemns the type of institute characterized above as a needless waste of public money and of time of teachers and officers.

The teachers' institute can still be a useful agency in the after training of teachers, provided it is recognized as having certain legitimate functions and is organized to serve those functions. Nearly twenty years ago Ruediger[3] pointed out that the typical teachers' institute might serve these useful purposes:

1. As a professional training school for teachers.
2. As a teachers' meeting in which the appointed authorities acquaint the teachers with the educational policies of the state or county and with what is new and inspiring in educational thought.
3. As a teachers' convention or association whose purpose is largely social.

Summer schools and extension courses are today largely serving the first purpose. Teachers' institutes are not, at the present time, primarily concerned with the educational theories which are now so generally taught in teacher-training institutions.

City, county, and state institutes are still organized to serve the second purpose and are a vital factor in the improvement of teaching when pertinent, timely, and practical topics, with competent speakers, are discussed. Gatherings of teachers of a city, county, or a larger portion of the state for the discussion of educational policies and for securing a universal, intelligent understanding of them are indispensable.

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[1] Finegan, Thomas E., "Teacher Training Agencies," Chapter VI, *Annual Report*, University of the State of New York, Vol. 2, pp. 309-310, 1915. Albany, University of the State of New York, Education Department.

[2] Morrison, J. Cayce, "Professional Leadership through the Teachers' Conference," *New York State Education*, Vol. XV, No. 1, pp. 47-52, September, 1927.

[3] Ruediger, William C., *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1911, No. 3, p. 32.

The voluntary associations of teachers referred to by Ruediger serve largely a social rather than an educational purpose. The work of such an association is largely in the improvement of the general status of the profession of teaching rather than in the improvement of classroom instruction.

The following are examples of teachers' institutes in a city, a county, and a state.

A City Institute Program—Washington, D. C.

In Washington, D. C., teachers' institutes are conducted under the auspices of the Teachers' Council. The expenses of the institutes are defrayed by voluntary contributions from teachers and officers. The institute lectures are of two classes—general lectures of interest to all teachers and officers, and lectures on special subjects which are for limited groups of teachers. Listed below are the dates and topics of the general and special lectures held in 1927-28 and 1928-29. The speakers chosen to present these subjects were selected because of their special fitness and competence in these fields. They were brought to Washington from all parts of the United States.

General Lectures—1927-1928

Date	*Subject*
Nov. 16, 1927	The Significance of Individual Differences among Children
Dec. 15, 1927	The Attainment of Classroom Efficiency
Apr. 19, 1928	Curriculum Revision
Apr. 24, 1928	The Improvement of Teachers in Service
May 8, 1928	Vocational and Educational Guidance

Special Lectures—1927-1928

Oct. 15, 1927—The Relation of Physical Measurement to Health and Personality
Feb. 20, 1928—Modern Language Teaching in Junior and Senior High Schools
Mar. 15, 1928—Public School Music
Mar. 28-29, 1928—Unification of Kindergarten and First Grade Education
May 15, 1928—Mathematics in the Junior and Senior High Schools

General Lectures—1928-1929

Dec. 13, 1928—Personality
Jan. 24, 1929—Extra Curricular Activities
Feb. 14, 1929—By Air Plane to Pygmy Land
May 7, 1929—Handwriting in the Public Schools

Special Lectures—1928-1929

Jan. 10, 1929—The Challenge of 100% Accuracy in the Fundamentals of Arithmetic
Feb. 21, 1929—The Present Day Trend in the Teaching of Science
Mar. 7, 1929—Design and the Teaching of Art in High Schools
Mar. 21, 1929—The Blue Haze of Idealism (with special reference to the teaching of English)

Mar. 25, 1929—Conference on Normal School
Apr. 15-16, 1929—Conferences on Testing and Guidance of School Pupils:
  a. With members of the superintendent's staff
  b. With administrative principals of elementary schools
  c. With junior and senior high-school principals
  d. All administrative and supervisory officers.
Apr. 25, 1929—Industrial Arts as a Social Study.

County Teachers' Meetings in Maryland

Maryland counties have abolished the old county institutes, substituting for them professional teachers' meetings conducted preliminary to the opening of school and at other times during the year.

The following material is taken from the annual report of a county supervisor and is representative of the programs of county teachers' meetings in Maryland.

A conference of two days was held prior to the opening of school. At this conference the year's objectives were restated, and definite ways in which to achieve them were discussed.

The group of primary teachers at the preliminary conference—In the group of primary teachers, reading, especially pre-primer reading in the first grade, was discussed. Lessons illustrating the essential procedures in the use of jingles and board-lessons built up around children's experiences were worked out. The essential steps in the teaching of reading in the other primary grades were discussed. Devices for drill were shown and explained. Beginning teachers and those new to the county were shown how to use the reading manuals.

The tentative form of the social studies curriculum for Grades 1-4 was given to the teachers. Each of the four grade-chairmen explained in turn something of the content of the course of study as worked out in large blocks by seasons, thus giving each teacher a cursory view of the work for the four grades as well as a big point of view of the work of his particular grade.

The teachers were told to hold to this tenative form of the course of study very rigidly, noting all changes they felt should be made in it, as well as all additions and omissions, and keeping these in such form that they might be used by the compilers.

The making of a daily schedule of classes with underlying principles as to length of periods, appearance of subjects, sequence of subjects, recreation periods, and free periods, was discussed.

The group of grammar grade teachers at the preliminary conference—Stress in the grammar grade group was laid on the year's objective: Each pupil knowing how to study history, geography, and arithmetic problems effectively. Definite lessons in history and geography were taken up to illustrate the several steps in an effective method of study, after this fashion: With supervisor as teacher, and with teachers as pupils, they were directed to read the lesson silently. The lesson was then planned, after which it was studied, following a definite procedure worked out by the teachers last year.

Teachers were urged to teach lessons, then check upon the learning; to review this learning from another point of view, if possible, rather than use their time in hearing lessons.

The underlying principles of program-making were also taken up with this group.

A State Institute Program

(The New York State Program of District Meetings, 1927) [1]

The New York State Teachers Association has adopted the zoning plan in organizing its meetings. To illustrate, in 1927 the following district meetings were held:

Northern District, Potsdam, October 6-7
Central District, Syracuse, October 27-28
Eastern District, Troy, October 27-28
Southeastern District, New York City, November 17-18
Central Western District, Rochester, November 3-4
Western District, Buffalo, November 4-5
Southern District, Elmira, November 18-19
House of Delegates, Troy, November 21-22.

In the several districts, many types of meetings were tried out—Thursday and Friday, Friday and Saturday, special meetings on Thursday evening, special meetings on Friday evening, as well as highly specialized and general section meetings. The following are illustrative:

Administrative Section—Eastern District

Chairman, Mr. Edwin B. Robbins, Principal, Junior-Senior High School, Glens Falls,
Thursday Afternoon, October 27

2:00—General Topic: The Principal and the Classroom—Opportunities, Obligations, and Limitations

Address: From the Superintendent's Point of View, Dr. C. Edward Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Albany

Address: From the Classroom Teacher's Point of View, Miss Elizabeth Gorman, High School, Saratoga Springs

Address: From the Principal's Point of View, Mr. Ernest Robinson, Principal, Troy High School

Special Class Section—Northern District

Chairman, Miss Belle D. Van Ornum, Supervisor of Special Classes, Malone,
Friday Morning, October 7

9:00—Paper: Teaching Subnormals to Read, Miss Mary E. Looby, Plattsburg

Paper: How Has Your Special Class Reached into the Homes? What Evidence? Miss Florence Felton, Malone

Paper: Helpful Projects and How They Were Adapted, Mrs. Sara Pfeiffer, Potsdam

10:00—Address: The Discipline of the Subnormal, Miss Eleanore Ross, Supervisor of Special Classes, State Department of Education, Albany

11:00—Round Table: Industrial Work

Election of Chairman for the ensuing year.

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[1] See: The September, 1927, issue of *New York State Education*, Vol. XV, No. 1, pp. 1-41. Gives complete program for each district meeting.

II. Teachers' Meetings

Teachers' meetings by schools, by grades, by types of schools, or by the city as a whole may be made profitable in the improvement of teaching just to the extent that they are systematically organized and purposefully conducted to that end.

As a means by which the superintendent himself undertook to exercise professional leadership, to stimulate by example a desirable type of professional leadership among subordinate administrative and supervisory officers, and to bring about a common understanding among supervising officers of the problems of supervision, the monthly meetings of the administrative and supervisory officers with the superintendent in Washington, D. C., during 1927 were devoted to the subject of supervision. One of the following subjects was considered at each meeting:

1. Purpose of Supervision
2. By Whom Should Supervision Be Carried On
3. Methods of Supervision
4. The Spirit of the Supervisor
5. The Qualifications of the Supervisor
6. The Results To Be Achieved in Supervision.

In preparation for each meeting the superintendent assigned references on the subject to about a dozen of the officers. Each officer was given from five to seven minutes in which to report the substance of that article insofar as it related to the topic of the meeting.

At the close of the year the reports were turned over to a committee which organized them into a composite and well-articulated statement relating to the general subject. These reports then became the basis of the program of supervision of instruction which is being improved and extended in the Washington, D. C., school system.

Since teachers' meetings are considered by the Commission to be a major means for the improvement of teaching through supervision, they will be discussed more extensively in another chapter. See Chapter XI.

III. Demonstration Schools

Teachers need improvement in the technic of classroom procedure and methods of instruction. This is especially true of beginning teachers whose lack of experience in the management of a classroom sometimes results in loss of disciplinary control, and thereby makes proper instruction impossible.

Beginning teachers especially need to be shown how to organize the materials of instruction; how to handle the materials before the class; how to arouse and maintain the interest of pupils; how to adapt professional training to actual classroom conditions; and how to gain the sympathetic cooperation of the pupils in the class recitation. Also each beginning teacher must learn how much may be asked and required of the pupils of his class.

Moreover, just to the extent that progress is made from decade to decade in the technic of classroom instruction, just to that extent do teachers of experience also need to improve their classroom procedure.

Recognizing all this, demonstration schools have been organized to illustrate good teaching. It is the purpose of these schools to exemplify the most progressive methods of teaching, classroom management, and the use of educational materials that are known. To these schools and to particular teachers within these schools are sent teachers from all parts of the city to the end that such teachers may see a practical demonstration of the kind of work that the supervisors desire to see made general throughout the school system. To illustrate, a teacher who is trying the project method with only moderate success may be directed to observe a particular teacher in the demonstration school who is doing unusual work of that kind. A teacher of geography who needs assistance in the organization and preparation of material and its proper use in classroom procedure may likewise find a demonstration of that character. The subsequent pages describe the demonstration courses conducted in Baltimore, Md., and the Westfield conferences for young teachers held annually at the state normal school at Westfield, Mass.

Baltimore's Demonstration Courses[1]

In 1925, Baltimore developed a new plan for the training of teachers in service through a series of demonstration lessons and conferences. New courses of study recently published contained much new material, and new methods were called for. In order to make these courses of study effective, a series of demonstration lessons was given for principals and later for teachers. The interest in these demonstration lessons was so great that plans were made to develop them into extension courses of college grade carrying college credit. Centers were organized in various sections of the city in grades four, five, and six; the classes enrolled for two hours a week throughout the year. The initial registrations were so heavy that the number of centers was immediately doubled and centers were opened in primary and kindergarten work.

During the four years in which these courses have been offered, about eighty percent of the teachers in the elementary schools of Baltimore have been in regular attendance for at least one year. The demonstration courses seem to have become a permanent plan for the training of teachers in service.

In brief, the plan of these courses is as follows: Teachers of exceptional ability are chosen for demonstration work, and they are placed in school centers which are accessible for a large section of the city. All demonstrations are held after school hours, in order that there may be no interruptions to the regular work of the schools. No difficulty has been experienced in securing the voluntary attendance of pupils at these 4 o'clock sessions. In addition to the supervision of these centers given by the assistant superintendent in charge of the division concerned, each center is under the immediate supervision of an elementary grade supervisor. Every lesson is carefully planned by the demonstration teacher and the supervisor. The supervisor responsible for the center is always in attendance at the demonstration and conducts a conference immediately following the lesson. There has been a marked growth in the readiness of teachers to take part in a critical but professional discussion of the work observed. The work year by year varies according to what seems to be the most urgent problem in the development of new courses of study. In the intermediate grades, the following represents the yearly programs thus far carried out:

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[1] Statement furnished by Superintendent David E. Weglein of Baltimore, Md.

Year		Subjects stressed
First	1925–26	Geography, Arithmetic, History, English
Second	1926–27	English
Third	1927–28	Arithmetic, Geography, History
Fourth	1928–29	Reading, Handwriting, Science, English

During the four-year period, 436 white teachers in the intermediate grades and 104 colored teachers have taken these courses for credit, although the colored schools are just completing their third year of after-school demonstration work. Perhaps an equal number have benefited by more or less regular attendance upon these demonstrations.

A brief outline of the program in the primary grades so far is as follows:

Year		Subjects stressed
First	1926–27	Arithmetic, Reading, Spelling, Geography, History
Second	1927–28	Adaptation of the Curriculum to the Z Group
Third	1928–29	Adaptation of the Curriculum to the X Group

During these three years, 578 white teachers in the primary department and 170 colored teachers have taken these after-school courses for credit, although the colored primary teachers have just completed their second year of work. Perhaps an equal number have benefited by more or less regular attendance upon these demonstrations.

The Westfield Conferences for Young Teachers[1]

There are a number of problems in connection with the training and development of young teachers that under usual conditions are neglected or only partly solved. Practice facilities in normal schools are at best somewhat artificial, and students rarely experience true classroom conditions until they are actually placed as teachers. It is difficult for normal school instructors to keep in touch with realistic school conditions and the result is an increasing tendency on their part towards theoretical considerations of what might and ought to be real problems in teaching. Because of the wide variety of situations in the field, it is not easy to prepare students for successful teaching. Many young teachers accept positions in communities where the development that might come through supervision is impossible because supervision itself is impossible. Their superintendents are immersed in administrative problems and, because of the distances to be covered or the pressure of other work, are unable to supervise properly even though they would. School officials themselves appreciate the work of the normal school, know of its shortcomings, but depend upon it nevertheless for the development of their teachers. They rarely have the opportunity of contributing directly to that development. They see the problems of the normal school mainly in the light of the adaptation of its graduates to their own conditions and judge its work on that basis.

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[1] Based on a statement by Charles Russell, Principal, The Massachusetts State Normal School at Westfield, Mass. For a more complete account of this work see the November and December, 1929, issues of the *Elementary School Journal.*

The great problem of any normal school which is concerned with the worth of its work, however, is two-fold—primarily, that of providing the best preparation that is possible for its students; and secondarily, the adjustment of its graduates to teaching. Neither phase of the problem can be solved satisfactorily by itself, since the value of preparation can be measured only through service, and the value of service is in itself dependent upon preparation.

The Westfield Plan

During the last three years, an experiment has been carried on by the Westfield, Mass., State Normal School which is known as The Westfield Conference for Young Teachers. These conferences were originally developed to aid in the solution of the more important problems in the adjustment of young teachers, but they have been found to contribute greatly to the solution of other problems as well, and have modified, improved, and contributed to the development of the entire school.

The Westfield Plan, in brief, is to hold in the spring of the year, for its graduates of the year before who have teaching positions, a conference on the problems that have arisen during their first year of teaching. In order to make possible the attendance of these young graduates at the conference, the school has sent out as substitutes in these schools members of its graduating class who by that time have completed their term of practice teaching. In effect it means merely the temporary exchange of the graduating class with the graduates of the year before.

Preparations for the conference—The first step in preparation for the conference has been that of sending a letter to each superintendent of schools under whom a graduate of the normal school of the previous year is employed. This letter briefly describes the conference plan, invites the superintendent's cooperation, asks if his young teachers may be invited to attend, and specifically requests that, if so, the normal school be informed as to whether the further correspondence shall pass through his office or be sent direct to the young teachers.

The second step in preparation for the conference has been that of sending out to all those nominated by their superintendents an invitation to the conference.

a. *A dormitory invitation*—The young teacher is asked whether she can commute to the conference from her own home, or whether she desires to live in the dormitory during that time. Dormitory accommodations are made available through the sending out of substitutes. In the 1929 conference, fifty-two young teachers were accommodated in the dormitory in addition to the housing of four others who were acting as conference leaders.

b. *A general information blank*—This blank asks for specific information with respect to the young teacher's situation, the type of school, the number of pupils, the number of grades, the special characteristics of the school, and the like. The blank calls for information about the boarding place of the teacher, the ability of the teacher to care for the substitute, the distance to the school, and similar details. Specific requests are made for directions for travel to the school from Westfield, the exact means of transportation, and the cost. The information received from these blanks forms the basis for the assignments of the students as substitutes.

c. *A schedule blank*—This blank lists the twenty-nine types of problem conferences which have been found helpful in the past, and asks the young teachers to number, in the order of their importance, the six conference groups for which they wish to register. This blank and the one whose description follows were used for the first time in the 1929 conference, and have proved eminently successful in meeting the problem which they were designed to solve. They form the basis for the making out of definite individual schedules for the attending teachers.

d. *A problem blank*—Each visiting teacher is asked to specify, in the order of the choice made on the previously described schedule blank, the problem or problems in the field selected which impelled her to make the choices. From the result of this blank more than five hundred specific problems in the twenty-nine groups were derived and, as shown, were later used in the conference discussions.

The third step in preparation for the conference consists in the assignment and placement of the graduating class as substitutes for the young teachers.

The fourth step in the preparation for the conference consists in the making of definite schedules for the visiting teachers.

The experience of the first two conferences showed conclusively that, where a conference group contained more than fifteen individuals, there was great difficulty in restricting the discussion of problems to those most needed by the members; and that where there were five or less members, the combined experience of the group was insufficient for sustained discussion in a narrow field. The optimum size of group was felt to be from eight to twelve, and sections were made up on that basis.

The next work was the making of group lists of the problems which had been sent in on the problem blanks previously described. Figure V illustrates a group list of problems.

FIGURE V.—PROBLEM LIST FOR A CONFERENCE SECTION

1. How can I arouse interest in pupils who do not understand English?
2. I have several Italian sixth-grade pupils who cannot do written work in English. How can I help them to learn more quickly?
3. What can be done with a divided class, some with a poor background and with difficulties in English, and the remainder no further advanced generally but from a better environment?
4. What Americanization work should be done with my group of foreign children?
5. I cannot make the parents see that they must help their children. Can you give suggestions for approaching them?
6. Pupils use other languages at home and carry the foreign idioms into the classroom. How can I improve the work?
7. What is the best method of impressing foreign pupils with English forms?
8. Lack of knowledge of English affects the study of other subjects, since the pupils speak a foreign language at home. I need help and suggestions for improving the English first.
9. Is oral composition the best way of correcting faulty English?
10. Have several repeaters whose difficulties are in the use of English. What can I do about it?
11. I need suggestions to help pupils who do not hear English at home.

The final step preparatory to the holding of the conference consisted in the selection and appointment of the group leaders for the various conferences.

The Results of the Conferences

The effect upon the faculty—The effect of the conferences upon the faculty is clearly expressed in their own attitude towards the discussions. When problems are raised which might have been avoided if teaching had been different, the faculty members have made note of such points and have embodied these points in their subsequent teaching. Every faculty member is able to see better than ever before the conditions under which his students must teach, to appreciate the significance which a lack of certain materials may have in the work of his students in the field, to understand how varied conditions may make varied procedures necessary, and to deal with future students with greater insight, greater sympathy, and greater emphasis.

The effect upon public school officials—The conferences have acted to draw the school officials in the territory served by the Westfield Normal School closer to it. Through the contacts which are made by the superintendents and others who have acted as group leaders, and through the contacts necessary to arrange for the substitutes, the school officials have been brought to see the problems confronting the normal school and have been able to give help in their solution. A further evidence of the effect of these conferences upon the superintendents is the fact that many of the substitutes have been engaged to teach in the same districts and occasionally even in the same schools where their substitute teaching was done.

The effect upon the graduates—These young teachers return to the normal school after their first period of independent teaching with unsolved problems and in need of help. They meet their former instructors upon a different level from that upon which they met them previously. They come into contact with public school officials who are acting not as administrators and in judgment but rather as supervisors and teachers of the highest order. Such contacts and such relationships are conducive to the greatest help possible for the young teachers. A further effect is to give them an appreciation of their successes. To hear their fellow teachers express their problems, to be able to contribute to the solution of those problems, and to realize that they themselves have been able to surmount similar difficulties sends them back to their schools with greater confidence in their own abilities and with greater hope for the future.

The effect upon the substitutes—The work which the substitutes do is completed while there are still two months remaining before their graduation from the normal school. This period is one in which they have the opportunity of meeting with all of their normal school instructors and during which the instructors are able to point much of their work in terms of the experiences which the substitutes have had in their week of teaching. The substitutes return to the school with a new understanding of the problems of the teacher who is wholly dependent upon herself. They appreciate as never before the problems involved in the ordering of the work of the schoolroom, in the completion of work with the pupils, in the direction of the interests and aptitudes of pupils, in the adjustments which must be made to a new environment, in the reaction to new contacts, and, particularly, in their own abilities to direct teaching. They return to the school with a new zest, an invigorated outlook, and a much improved judgment. They are able to look forward to their future teaching not as toward an unknown occupation, but toward one in which they have been tried and not found wanting. They have been protected from the trials, vexations, and disappointments of the untried teacher, and have gained a confidence which will later enable them to surmount or prevent those difficulties in their teaching.

The effect upon graduates of other schools—Graduates of other schools have been members of the Westfield conferences since their inception. There have never been many of them, and it is impossible to determine what the effect would be if they were in a majority, as would be the case if such conferences were to be held with all of the young teachers of a district, and as is true in some institute forms of instruction. The presence of these graduates of other schools has been an asset to the conferences rather than otherwise. They bring a different pre-service point of view, and have an interest in the progress of the discussions as great as the graduates themselves. They are quickly assimilated in a social way by the larger group and take part in all of the activities which are set up with as great zest as though they had always been a part of the group. The final effect upon them seems to be exactly the same as in the cases of the graduates, and it appears that a conference might as easily be conducted on a district basis as on a graduate basis.

The cost of the conference—The total cost of the conferences to the school has been only that of the traveling expenses of the leaders who have been invited from outside to take part. This, in 1929, was $65.

All traveling expenses of substitutes and young teachers have been paid by themselves. This averaged $1.45 per person in 1929. The boarding hall expenses and boarding house costs of substitutes have been paid by each group before the conference, and the two groups have merely interchanged places.

No substitute has ever accepted remuneration for the week of teaching, and no teacher has ever had a salary cut for absence to attend the conferences.

Conclusion—The good that these conferences have brought to the school, through the stimulation of the faculty, the pre-knowledge of teaching given to the graduating class, the resulting good feeling with the school officials, is not to be denied or minimized. The conference has become a unifying agency, around which the school as a whole has rallied, to which all have been able to contribute, and from which all have received benefit. The good that the conferences have brought to the young teachers is incalculable.

IV. Self-Improvement Outlines[1]

Self-improvement outlines are highly significant. They testify in support of the general theme of this chapter, namely that teachers in service need improvement. They are still more significant because they indicate that the improvement of teachers in service must be brought about through the individual activities of teachers themselves. Improvement of teachers which results from compulsion is scarcely worth having. To be worthwhile, improvement must be recognized by teachers as desirable and undertaken by them in a wholehearted and thoroughly professional way.

Self-improvement outlines are significant also because they recognize the fundamental principle that all genuine improvement of teaching must be based on an analysis of individual successes and failures. Self-examination charts provide each teacher with a means of checking his own strength and weakness. They reveal to each teacher who conscientiously uses them, ways and means by which he may profitably improve his teaching. Self-examination charts center the responsibility for improvement on the teacher himself.

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[1] In connection with this section see: Use of Teacher-Rating Blanks to Measure Improvement in Teaching, Chapter VII, pp. 144-6.

For illustrative purposes, two examples of self-examination sheets are included here. The first of these comes from Schenectady, N. Y., and the second originated in Boston, Mass.

Evaluation of My Teaching

(Self-examination sheet submitted by E. O. Hoffman, Principal of the Senior High School, Schenectady, N. Y.)

1. Skill in teaching as shown in aim:
   a. Have I a specific objective definitely formulated for this recitation?
   b. Or is the aim vague and ultimate?
   c. Is the objective apparent in the procedure of the recitation?

2. Skill in teaching as shown in my knowledge of my own and related fields:
   a. Do I show a knowledge of the problem under discussion?
   b. Do I show a general knowledge of the subject I am teaching?
   c. Do I show a general knowledge, outside of the field I am teaching, in other subjects and current events?
   d. Do I always use good English, and encourage the pupils to do the same?
   e. Do I modulate my voice properly?

3. Skill in teaching as shown in selection and organization of subject-matter:
   a. Do I select significant and valuable portions of subject-matter for discussion?
   b. Do I recognize and emphasize relative values of portions of the text?
   c. Do I use materials not in the text?

4. Skill in teaching as shown in making the assignment:
   a. Does it present a stimulating problem?
   b. Do I give the problem a setting that is significant to pupils?
   c. Is the assignment more than an announcement of the number of pages in the text?
   d. Do I develop the assignment with the class?
   e. Do the pupils know what the assignment is?
   f. Do I lead pupils to accept responsibility for accomplishing the assignment?

5. Skill in teaching as shown in questions:
   a. Are my questions systematically planned and spontaneously asked? Thought provoking or trivial?
   b. Do my pupils ask questions?
   c. Am I versatile in utilizing questions asked by pupils?
   d. Do I distribute my questions well among the members of the class?
   e. Do I avoid repeating answers given by pupils?
   f. Is the number of questions in keeping with good thinking on the part of the class?
   g. Do I ask questions requiring summaries and organization?

6. Skill in teaching as shown in economy in drill:
   a. Do I select the most important ideas and facts for permanent retention?
   b. Do I use available drill exercises?
   c. Do I prepare drills for specific points?
   d. Do I realize that right practice makes perfect?

7. Skill in teaching as shown in illustration:
    - a. Do I use illustrations to clarify general statements?
    - b. Do I use maps, charts, pictures, objects, and apparatus effectively?
    - c. Do I urge pupils to go on excursions to study projects at first hand?
    - d. Do I use verbal illustrations, and encourage pupils to do the same?
    - e. Do the illustrations add force to the point rather than become central in attention?

8. Skill in teaching as shown in securing class participation in the recitation:
    - a. Do all pupils take part in the recitation?
    - b. Do the pupils question each other and aid in conducting the recitation?
    - c. Do I dominate the recitation, or do the pupils contribute in a large measure to its progress?

9. Skill in teaching as shown in knowing how pupils learn:
    - a. Do I encourage self-activity on the part of the pupils?
        - 1). Do pupils make recitations of good length?
        - 2). Do pupils use a proper share of the time?
    - b. Do I provide adequate motives?
    - c. Do I propose problems whose value pupils recognize?
    - d. Do I isolate the point to be learned?
    - e. Do I realize that it is easier to lead pupils than it is to drive them?
    - f. Do I recognize individual differences in ability to learn?

10. Do I use adequate class tests—standard, objective?

Teachers' Self-Examination Outline

(The following outline was prepared by Frank W. Ballou, then Director of Educational Research in Boston, and distributed to all teachers employed in the public schools of Boston.)

The following "Foreword," written by Franklin B. Dyer, then Superintendent of Schools of Boston, accompanied the self-examination outline.

Foreword

There is no effective way of improving the teaching of our schools except as the teachers themselves feel the need of self-improvement. Fortunately, there are few teachers who do not desire to improve in schoolroom efficiency and in the knowledge of the theory and art of teaching. The first step towards improvement is a rigid self-examination through which each one may see himself as he is, in the light of what he should be. After such an examination, every conscientious teacher will put forth a strenuous effort to strengthen the weak places in his character and professional work. After considerable correspondence with many who have given much thought to the art of teaching, the following study has been prepared with the hope that it will prove of value to teachers for the purpose of self-examination and self-improvement. If each one of us will subject himself to a rigid self-criticism in the light of this inquiry, it is probable that it will be of greater benefit to the children of this city than any material thing that could be done for the schools. It is hoped that no one, from the temporary teacher to the superintendent, will feel that this is not meant for him. "If each one mends one, all will be amended."

Questions on Teaching

These questions are not asked for the purpose of obtaining written answers from teachers. They are asked to help teachers make a self-examination to find ways of improving. It is hoped that each teacher may profit by answering these questions for himself or herself.

A. Personal Characteristics:

1. Is my personal appearance as good as I can make it?
2. Am I careful to keep myself in as good physical health as possible?
3. Is my mien natural and sincere rather than affected or assumed?
4. What mannerisms have I that can be overcome?
5. Is my voice well modulated?
6. Is my speech so well enunciated that I am easily understood by the pupils?
7. How do I know that my use of English is worthy of the mother tongue?
8. What traits are there in my disposition which I should hold in check?

B. Ability as a Teacher:

Management of the room:

1. Is the ventilation in my room as good as I can make it?
2. Is the temperature satisfactory?
3. Are the seats properly adjusted to the pupils?
4. Is the lighting of the room as good as I can make it?
5. What methods do I employ to have readily available for teaching purposes the appropriate educational material such as charts, maps, pictures, globes, and practice work?
6. Have I done all that can be done to make my room an attractive place to work?

Management of the class—discipline:

1. How do I know that my ideal of good order is a worthy one?
2. Do I secure good order by the best methods?
3. What evidences are there that my pupils are acquiring habits of good physical bearing?
4. Do I find more difficulty in handling the class at dismissals than during recitation periods?
5. Do I lead or command the pupils in maintaining proper order?
6. What shows that my pupils are learning self-control?
7. In what ways is a responsive and cooperative spirit among the pupils shown?

Teaching the lesson:

1. Do I distinguish the following types of lesson and employ each at the proper time—a drill lesson, a thinking lesson, a lesson for appreciation (of literature or art), and a lesson to teach children how to study?
2. Which method of teaching do I use most often:
   a. The conversational, in which the pupils both answer and ask questions?
   b. The quiz, in which the pupils only answer the questions which I ask them?
   c. The lecture, in which the pupils merely receive what is given them?
3. Do I choose my method of teaching in view of the character of the lesson to be taught?
4. What part of the recitation time do I take up:
   a. By asking thought-provoking questions and trying to get the pupils to talk freely about the subject which they are learning to handle?
   b. By merely quizzing?
   c. By giving information?
   d. By working at the blackboard?
   e. By using illustrative material?

5. What part of the recitation time do the pupils take up:
   a. By working out new information through free conversation about the subject which they are trying to learn?
   b. By repeating information memorized from a book?
   c. By drill or practice work to apply the principles taught?
   d. By giving thoughtful answers?
   e. By working at their seats or at the blackboard?
6. To what extent in each lesson do I help the pupils to prepare the next lesson:
   a. By a good ending of recitation?
   b. By a judicious assignment?
   c. By stating the aim?
   d. By anticipating their difficulties?
   e. By suggestions or directions?
7. How do I find out that the pupils have clearly in mind the aim or purpose of each lesson?
8. Do I take appropriate means to ascertain how much the pupils know about the subject of the lesson before I attempt to teach them the new lesson?
9. To what extent do I secure the proper attention of pupils to their work through interests that are natural to them?
10. What means do I take to present the material in the form of problems which stimulate the curiosity of the pupils?
11. Are my questions simple, direct, and logical, or are they rambling, ambiguous, and suggestive of the answer?
12. Are most of my questions for the purpose of developing new ideas or to find out how much of the assigned lesson the pupils have learned?
13. What means do I adopt to insure judicious distribution of my questions among pupils?
14. How many different pupils of my class do I give a chance to recite in each recitation? In a week?
15. What pains do I take to make my questions such that the pupils must answer them with a complete statement rather than with one word?
16. What methods do I employ to have each pupil as he recites address himself to the class rather than to me?
17. How do I make it necessary for the pupil to make the proper use of his past experiences and his present knowledge?
18. Do I make desirable use of pictures, objects, charts, maps, blackboards, and other objective material?
19. Am I distributing my attention judiciously among the better and poorer pupils so that each pupil is getting the largest possible value from my instruction?
20. Am I training my pupils to discriminate between what is essentially important in the lesson and what is only relatively so?
21. Am I teaching my pupils to organize their own ideas in proper relation and sequence?
22. How do I see to it that the pupils feel that the object of the lesson has been accomplished?
23. By what methods do I clinch the main idea of each lesson before closing the recitation?
24. What evidence is there that my pupils are increasing in power of self-control and initiative? Are they learning to solve their own difficulties?
25. Are my pupils increasing their feeling of responsibility for their own improvement?

26. Do my pupils attack hard work gladly, or do they want help in every little difficulty?
27. Are my pupils being trained in conscious methods of study and work?
28. To what extent do drills and practice work of pupils carry over into their other work?
29. Is my teaching such that there is inculcated in my pupils the desire to learn, to render some valuable service, and to be somebody worthwhile?
30. In general, what am I as a teacher doing, what am I doing it for, and why am I doing it in this particular way?

V. Experimentation as an Aid to Training Teachers in Service

The advent of the scientific spirit into the theory and practice of education makes experimentation a necessity. Personal opinion as the only basis for educational theory and practice is being replaced by the results of scientific inquiry into and evaluation of educational practices.

An experiment is a device set up for determining the comparative merits of two or more appreciably different practices by means of a comparison of the results secured. To illustrate, experiments may be made to determine the relative merits of individualized instruction as represented by the Dalton or Winnetka plans. They may have to do with a detailed classroom method of teaching reading or arithmetic, or with the uniform practice material used by all pupils.

Whatever may be the experiment, the general scientific method is fundamentally the same. According to Rankin,[1] the steps in the experimental evaluation of a particular method or piece of material are these:

1. Specific statement of the problem
2. Formulation of the general plan of the experiment
3. Decision as to the criteria of judgment
4. Selection of the subjects
5. Securing of objective records of initial status of the subjects
6. Objective description of the experimental factors
7. Securing of objective records of final status of the subjects
8. Organization and interpretation of the results.

If teachers are to grow in efficiency after appointment, if they are to be familiar with the most progressive methods of instruction, and if they are to bring about improvement through self-examination and the adoption of methods differing from the methods that they were taught, they must not only be permitted but encouraged to try out from time to time new methods of classroom teaching. If teachers are expected to assume some responsibility for their own improvement, they must also be allowed some latitude in bringing about that improvement.

Latitude, or freedom to try out new methods and new teaching devices, must not, however, be construed as license to try anything and everything at one and the same time. Such individual freedom on the part of a teacher in classroom work can lead only to confusion and chaos.

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[1] Rankin, Paul T., "Survey Techniques for the Experimental Determination of the Value of Materials and Methods," Chapter XVII, *Scientific Method in Supervision,* The Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, p. 224. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

All classroom experimentation of individual teachers should be known to the supervisor, and if such experiments have to do with theories and practices that are of fundamental importance, they should be carried on under such conditions as will produce worthwhile educational results.

Since all experiments in classroom procedure relate to the advantage of one procedure over another, they involve not merely the teacher who is trying a new plan of teaching, but they also involve some other teacher who is pursuing another method of teaching. Every experiment has to do with two situations, the one in which a new procedure is being followed, and another in which some other procedure is being followed. The supervisor must assume responsibility for setting up and supervising the conditions under which a worthwhile experiment may be carried on.

The Commission believes that experimentation under controlled conditions should be encouraged. Only through experimentation properly controlled, can the teaching profession hope to replace the old "trial and error" method with the scientific method of determining questions of educational theory and practice.

Inducements and Rewards for Improvement

As indicative of the inducements and rewards now offered teachers for the improvement in service, visiting days, leave of absence for educational purposes, salary schedules, and administrative practices are discussed in this chapter.

Visiting days—Visiting days for teachers have been the practice through many generations. They originated when there was less supervision than there is today. They provide an opportunity for the teacher to secure a substitute or excuse his class for the day, with proper permission, and observe the work of other teachers.

If visiting days are looked upon by teachers as holidays from work, or an opportunity to pay personal calls upon other members of the profession, or an excuse for visiting another city for some other purpose, they serve no worthy educational purpose.

If visiting days are looked upon as opportunities for observing teaching methods of superior teachers; if the visits are anticipated, planned for, and are a part of the general plan of the supervisor for improving teaching, they are a valuable part of a worthy plan of teacher improvement.

Leave of absence for educational purposes—One of the most desirable administrative provisions for encouraging the improvement of teachers in service is the provision for leave of absence for study. Such leaves are granted under varying conditions in different cities, sometimes without pay, sometimes with fifty percent or more of the annual compensation of the teacher. Provision is frequently made for returning the teacher to the identical position in the school system which he held preceding his leave.

A recent study made by the Research Division of the National Education Association[1] shows that over 92 percent of 66 cities over 100,000 in population grant teachers leaves of absence for professional improvement. This same practice is followed in 80 percent of 161 cities having a population of 30,000 to 100,000, and in over 60 percent of 326 cities from 10,000 to 30,000 in population. Conditions are not so favorable, however, in smaller cities. In many of these communities, salary schedules are too low to permit teachers saving funds necessary for taking time off, or, if such saving is accomplished, the teacher expects after a period of study to move on to a community in which conditions of service are better.

Table 38 shows that, of 828 cities which grant leave for study, 750, or 91 percent, pay no salary during such leave. Sixty-three cities, or nearly eight percent, pay some salary during leave; 30 of these pay half salary or more. Fifteen of the 828 cities did not report on this question.

As typical of the provision for leave of absence for educational purposes without pay, the rules of the board of education in Washington, D. C., are included:

> Sec. 4.—1. The Board of Education, upon recommendation of the superintendent of schools, may grant leave of absence, without pay, for educational advantages, subject to the limitations hereinbefore specified, to officers, teachers, and librarians who shall submit a written plan of the educational work to be undertaken during the period of such leave of absence, which plan shall be approved by the superintendent of schools and who shall file with him a written pledge to perform service in the public schools of the District of Columbia for a period of not less than two years after reinstatement from such leave of absence.
>
> 2. Such leave of absence shall extend during a definite period not to exceed one year, and the position so vacated shall be filled by promotion or appointment with a tenure of office to extend only until the expiration of such leave of absence.
>
> 3. No such leave shall be granted, when, in the judgment of the superintendent of schools, the position can not adequately be filled by promotion or an appointment on temporary tenure.
>
> 4. When such leave of absence terminates, the regular employee shall be appointed to his regular position, unless otherwise ordered by the Board of Education.

The regulations governing leave of absence with pay are, generally, similar to the above rule, except that they indicate the amount of pay which teachers may receive while on leave. The following are illustrations:

> When a teacher is granted a furlough for half a session or more for further study, he shall receive half pay for four and one-half (4½) months, provided he shall agree to return to the Richmond Public Schools and teach for at least one year. If he does not return for one year, he shall refund to the School Board all money received while on furlough.—*Richmond Public Schools, Circular No. 13, By-Laws and Regulations of the School Board of the City of Richmond, Virginia. Published by the School Board of the City of Richmond, Va., July, 1920.*
>
> Any teacher or principal who shall have served the City of Buffalo for ten years may, on recommendation of the Superintendent and with the approval of the Board

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[1] See: *Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel,* Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 4, September, 1928, p. 225. Washington, D. C., National Education Association.

TABLE 38.—NUMBER AND PERCENT OF CITIES GRANTING LEAVE FOR PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT, AND AMOUNT OF SALARY DURING LEAVE.*

Leave of absence granted for professional improvement	66 cities over 100,000 in population		161 cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Yes	61	92.4	129	80.1	197	60.4	208	52.4	233	40.0	828	54.0
No	5	7.6	32	19.9	125	38.4	173	43.6	331	56.9	666	43.5
No report or indefinite	....	....	....	....	4	1.2	16	4.0	18	3.1	38	2.5
Total	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Amount of salary paid during leave:												
Full salary	....	....	1	.8	1	.5	....	....	2	.9	4	.5
Half salary	10	16.4	6	4.7	6	3.1	1	.5	3	1.3	26	3.1
Full salary less pay of substitute	4	6.6	2	1.5	3	1.5	5	2.4	4	1.7	18	2.2
Some other fraction of salary	3	4.9	7	5.4	1	.5	2[3]	1.0	2	.9	15	1.8
No salary	41[1]	67.2	112[2]	86.8	186	94.4	196	94.2	215	92.2	750	90.6
No report	3	4.9	1	.8	....	....	4	1.9	7	3.0	15	1.8
Total	61	100.0	129	100.0	197	100.0	208	100.0	233	100.0	828	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting, 61, or 92.4 percent, grant leave of absence for professional improvement; 5, or 7.6 percent, do not grant such leave. Of the 61 cities granting leave for professional improvement, none paid full salary during such leave; 10, or 16.4 percent of the cities granting such leave, paid half salary; 4, or 6.6 percent, paid full salary less pay of substitute; 3, or 4.9 percent, paid some other fraction of salary; 41, or 67.2 percent, did not pay any salaries; and 3, or 4.9 percent, left this part of the question blank. Similarly read data for other population groups.

[1] One of these 41 cities reported "no salary but $20 reimbursement per month for 50 months on return."

[2] Three of these 112 cities reported "except to the extent that it placed them in a higher salary group."

[3] One city takes care of pension payments for teachers during absence.

* Taken from: *Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel,* Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 4, September, 1928, p. 225. Washington, D. C., National Education Association.

of Education, be granted a leave of absence for study or travel; salary during such leave to be one-half of the applicant's regular salary but in no event shall it exceed $1000.—*Regulation, Board of Education, Buffalo, N. Y.*

Leaves of absence for purposes of study may be granted by the Board of Education in its discretion to members of the teaching staff who have performed continuous and satisfactory service in the public schools of this city for at least ten years. Leaves of absence granted under this rule shall in each case be for one year and shall begin on September 1. Anyone absent on such leave shall receive as compensation one-half of his or her annual salary.—*Regulation, Board of Education, Jersey City, N. J.*

Obviously, the additional preparation of the teacher for his work is of advantage to the school system, and, therefore, justifies the establishment of the most favorable conditions under which such leave is granted and by which the teacher is returned to the service. On the other hand, leave of absence for self-improvement with pay likewise imposes on the teacher some obligation to give to the school system more efficient service for a reasonable period of time following such leave.

Salary schedules [1]—The obligation of the teacher to keep himself qualified to render increasingly effective service throughout his period of employment is no greater than the obligation of the public to reward adequately such improvement. Teaching must offer inducements to young men and women of exceptional natural ability to enter the profession.

If the highest professional standards are to be maintained, teaching must be looked upon as the permanent occupation of those engaged in it, and not as a stepping stone to something else. The public must provide for that permanency of employment in the ranks of the teaching profession necessary to maintain an efficient system of education, before it can expect the profession to measure up to the high ideals which should characterize a great public service.

The public should provide for the teacher a satisfactory salary schedule, possibilities of additional reward in that schedule for increased preparation and unusual teaching accomplishments, security of position during efficient service, and a satisfactory retiring annuity in old age or in the case of disability. The public should expect improvement among the members of the teaching profession only when it establishes worthy motives for self-improvement and an income for the teacher sufficient to cover the cost of that improvement.

As an inducement for the teacher to improve in his work, and as a condition which must be met before the public has a right to insist upon self-improvement among teachers, the salary schedule holds a leading place.

An adequate salary schedule should include the following:

1. A beginning or minimum salary adequate to induce capable young men and

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[1] See: *The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries,* Research Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 3, May, 1927. Washington, D. C., National Education Association. Discusses fundamental principles relative to the scheduling of teachers' salaries.

Salary Scales in City School Systems, 1928-29, Research Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 3, May, 1929. Washington, D. C., National Education Association. Presents data as to salaries paid teachers, principals, administrative and supervisory officers, school nurses, clerks, and janitors, in 1928-29. The salaries of 342,980 persons are included in the tabulations.

women to make satisfactory academic and professional preparation to enter the teaching profession as a life work.

2. A provision for placement for previous service in teaching that encourages teachers of experience and proven merit to seek employment on an advanced salary.
3. Provision for annual increases in compensation sufficient to prompt teachers to continue in the teaching profession.
4. A maximum salary which shall constitute more than a living wage and sufficiently high to make it unnecessary for a first-class teacher to seek administrative or supervisory work exclusively for financial reasons.
5. Sufficient flexibility so that special adjustments to meet special needs and exceptional preparation and performance will be properly recognized.
6. Provision for leave of absence for professional study with part pay.

A salary schedule which is characterized by these elements will justify persons of unusual ability in entering the profession, will reward them for service faithfully rendered, and will give financial recognition to superior ability and accomplishment.

Much argument has been advanced in the past fifteen years in favor of a so-called "single salary schedule." The single salary provides the same salary for all teachers of kindergarten, elementary, junior high, or senior high schools within a school system who possess like educational training and experience. Rates of compensation in a single salary schedule are established on the basis of normal school training, four-year teachers college training, graduate work leading to a master of arts degree, the higher compensation being provided for those who possess the larger amount of professional preparation.

Table 39 presents a partial list of cities of various sizes which have single salary schedules.

Instead of a single salary schedule, some school systems have adopted a salary schedule in which provision is made for advancing superior teachers to a salary higher than the average teacher within the system may attain. The salary schedule in Washington, D. C., is an example of this type.

In Washington, D. C., the salary schedule for each group of teachers in elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools is divided into two parts, designated in law as Group A and Group B. The Group A schedule for the elementary school teachers, for example, begins at $1400 and increases $100 each year until a maximum of $2200 is reached. The Group B schedule begins with a minimum of $2300 and increases $100 a year until $2600 is reached.

The law provides that promotions from Group A salary to Group B salary shall be made "on the basis of such evidence of superior teaching and of increased professional attainments as the Board of Education may prescribe." Particular attention is called to the fact that *superior teaching* is mentioned first and at least is coordinate with increased professional attainments.

One of the serious difficulties involved in the administration of the single salary schedule arises out of the fact that salaries are fixed on the

TABLE 39.—PARTIAL LIST OF CITIES HAVING SINGLE SALARY SCHEDULE[1]

Nine cities over 100,000 in population	Forty-two cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population	Thirty-three cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population	Thirty-six cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population	Thirty-four cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population
1	2	3	4	5
Bridgeport, Conn.	Berkeley, Calif.	Aberdeen, S. D.	**Bisbee, Ariz.	Algona, Iowa
Denver, Colo.	Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Ann Arbor, Mich.	**Bristol, Va.	Aurora, Minn.
Des Moines, Iowa	Colorado Springs, Colo.	*Appleton, Wis.	Centralia, Wash.	Bronxville, N. Y.
Louisville, Ky.	Decatur, Ill.	Ardmore, Okla.	Clearfield, Pa.	Clayton, Mo.
Minneapolis, Minn.	Duluth, Minn.	Asbury Park, N. J.	**East Palestine, Ohio	**Crosby, Minn.
Portland, Ore.	*Elmira, N. Y.	Atchison, Kans.	Eveleth, Minn.	Darien, Conn.
San Antonio, Texas	*Flint, Mich.	Bath, Maine	Fort Thomas, Ky.	Dillon, Mont.
Spokane, Wash.	Green Bay, Wis.	Beloit, Wis.	**Fremont, Neb.	Ecorse, Mich.
**Youngstown, Ohio	Hammond, Ind.	Chicago Heights, Ill.	Greenville, N. C.	Englewood, Colo.
	Harrisburg, Pa.	Cleveland Heights, Ohio	**Hannibal, Mo.	Euclid, Ohio
	*Highland Park, Mich.	Coffeyville, Kans.	Ionia, Mich.	**Ferndale, Mich.
	Huntington, W. Va.	Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio	Jamestown, N. D.	**Gilbert, Minn.
	**Jackson, Mich.	Durham, N. C.	**Junction City, Kan.	Hampton, Iowa
	Joliet, Ill.	Elgin, Ill.	**Kinston, N. C.	Hinsdale, Ill.
	Kalamazoo, Mich.	Elwood, Ind.	Lewistown, Mont.	**International Falls, Minn.
	La Crosse, Wis.	Fond du Lac, Wis.	Little Falls, Minn.	Kenmore, N. Y.
	**Lakewood, Ohio	Gloversville, N. Y.	Livingston, Mont.	Laurens, S. C.
	Lansing, Mich.	Grand Island, Neb.	Medina, N. Y.	Leroy, N. Y.
	**Little Rock, Ark.	Hutchinson, Kan.	Middlesboro, Ky.	**Monett, Mo.
	Lincoln, Neb.	*Lawrence, Kan.	**Mitchell, S. D.	Monticello, Ind.
	Madison, Wis.	*Leavenworth, Kan.	**Mt. Vernon, Ohio	National City, Calif.
	Muskogee, Okla.	Martins Ferry, Ohio	Munising, Mich.	North Kingstown, R. I.
	Newport News, Va.	Morgantown, W. Va.	**Muskegon Heights, Mich.	**Oberlin, Ohio
	Norristown, Pa.	**Okmulgee, Okla.	**Newton, Iowa	Park City, Utah
	**Ogden, Utah	Parkersburg, W. Va.	Oelwein, Iowa	Pasco, Wash.
	Oklahoma City, Okla.	**Peru, Ind.	Pendleton, Ore.	Red Bluff, Calif.
	Oshkosh, Wis.	Richmond, Ind.	Royal Oak, Mich.	Renton, Wash.
	Pasadena, Calif.	Rochester, Minn.	**Springfield, Vt.	Ripon, Wis.
	Petersburg, Va.	**St. Cloud, Minn.	**Stoneham, Mass.	Rock Falls, Ill.
	Roanoke, Va.	Salina, Kan.	Taylorville, Ill.	Rocky Ford, Colo.
	Rockford, Ill.	*San Bernardino, Calif.	Texarkana, Ark.	Roseburg, Ore.
	Saginaw, Mich.	*Urbana, Ill.	University City, Mo.	Scotia, N. Y.
	St. Joseph, Mo.	Virginia, Minn.	Watertown, Conn.	Spanish Fork, Utah
	San Diego, Calif.		West Hartford, Conn.	Winslow, Ariz.
	Sheboygan, Wis.		**Winchester, Va.	
	Sioux City, Iowa		Ypsilanti, Mich.	
	Springfield, Mo.			
	Tacoma, Wash.			
	Terre Haute, Ind.			
	Tulsa, Okla.			
	**Wilmington, N. C.			
	Winston-Salem, N. C.			

[1] Prepared by the Research Division, National Education Association, November, 1928.
* Did not report data as to salary schedule for 1926-27. Data given are for 1925-26.
** Did not report data as to salary schedule for 1926-27 or 1925-26. Data given are for 1924-25.

basis of a systematic institutional study rather than on the basis of improved classroom teaching. Too frequently teachers are undertaking to build up a group of credits for courses pursued in order to secure promotion in salary, when the courses pursued have little or no relation to the classroom work of those teachers. Such teachers become "credit chasers."

Moreover, some teachers feel compelled financially to pursue a larger number of courses than their physical strength and their classroom work make it possible for them to pursue. Their classroom work actually deteriorates rather than improves as a result of courses pursued.

Whether it be a single salary schedule that emphasizes the pursuit of courses, or whether it be a salary schedule emphasizing superior classroom teaching, it is obvious that either schedule should be so administered as to provide the children with the improved teaching service which the higher compensation for teachers is intended to provide. Without doubt, the salary schedule must be regarded as the most tangible and most compelling evidence of the inducement and reward which a community establishes for the improvement of its teachers in service. Whatever that salary schedule is, it must be administered in terms of classroom service to the children.

Administrative practice as inducement for teacher improvement—An adequate salary schedule alone will not of itself guarantee to a community the improvement among the teachers which the community has a right to expect.

The point of view of the teacher regarding his own status, the profession as a whole, and the value of the public service that he renders, will depend largely on the spirit and the methods employed in the administration of the school system of which he is a part.

If the teacher feels that the school system is operated for selfish purposes rather than for the children; that promotions to higher administrative positions are made on the basis of personal influence and "pull"; and that the teacher's acquaintances are more important in securing preferment than his accomplishments, then the teacher has little, if any, inducement to improve himself for the service in which he is engaged.

If, on the other hand, the administration of the school system is open and aboveboard; is free from partisanship; is seeking to improve the status of the teacher in salary, tenure, and annuities; is rewarding systematic self-improvement; and is appointing and promoting teachers strictly on merit, then the teacher is certain to put forth his best efforts not only in his own individual interests but in the interests of the children whom he teaches.

Under such an administration, service to the children is the measure of a teacher's worth; the teaching profession can maintain its highest ideals, and the public will receive its full return for its appropriations, because the future citizens of the republic are being adequately trained. Without the maintenance of such an administration of the public schools, the inducement necessary for securing the highest type of professional teaching service is lacking.

CHAPTER XI

SUPERVISORS' CONFERENCES AND MEETINGS WITH TEACHERS

As already stated in Chapter X, the Supervision Commission believes that teachers' meetings are such an important means of improving teachers in service that they should be given extended discussion in a separate chapter.

The term "supervisor" as here used includes the building principal, the primary supervisor, the supervising principal who supervises a district with several elementary schools, a director of a special subject or department in the elementary schools, the head of a department who is a subject supervisor in junior or senior high school or both, and those assistant superintendents who function partly or largely as supervisors of instruction, as well as administrative officers.

The conference between supervisor and teacher may be of several kinds. The casual or informal conference may take place when the supervisor visits the classroom or the school. This conference must necessarily be brief. It may serve a useful purpose in creating a proper relationship between supervisor and teacher, but it cannot be made an adequate opportunity for the discussion of the detailed work of the teacher.

The conference that the Commission believes is an important means of teacher training is the interview that takes place between supervisor and teacher on some lesson that the supervisor has observed or on some other topic relating to the work of the teacher. Such conferences have a definite topic or topics for consideration, are carried on under such circumstances as to give adequate opportunity for full discussion of the topic, and usually lead to some conclusion as to a future plan of action. This is the type of individual conference that will be considered in this chapter.

Many teachers' meetings are devoted to matters of school organization and administration, such as the assignment of teachers to corridor duty and playground supervision at recess, distribution of supplies, preparation of reports of various kinds, care, responsibility for, and proper use of public school property. While such meetings are important and have perhaps come to be the most common type of teachers' meetings, they are not the present concern of the Commission on Supervision.

The teachers' meetings with which the Commission is concerned in this chapter are meetings held by supervisors to consider the improvement of teaching. Such meetings may be attended by:

1. All the teachers of the school
2. All the teachers of a grade within a school or throughout the school system
3. All the teachers of a given type of school, such as trade schools.

The Commission believes that the full educational possibilities of such meetings have not as yet been realized. For this reason, the Commission is giving extended consideration to this subject, and hopes to present in this chapter suggestions for all the various kinds of meetings which the supervisor holds with teachers, that these meetings may hereafter more fully realize larger professional results as an agency in the after-training of teachers. In general, the Commission holds that teachers' meetings by schools, by grades, or by types of schools may be made profitable by the supervisor in the improvement of teaching to the extent that they are organized and conducted with that purpose in view. The same may be said of general meetings of supervisors and administrative officers who meet as a general group or as a single group according to rank or position.

The following pages contain type cases of supervisors' conferences with individual teachers, typical topics or programs discussed at group teachers' meetings, a discussion of the relative effectiveness of the group and the individual supervisory conference, and topics and programs of general teachers' meetings.

I. Conferences with Individual Teachers

The conference technics which any supervisor develops are naturally varied to meet different situations. However, each supervisor develops for himself certain general uses of the conference period. Miss Annette Mann, supervisor in Baltimore, Md., describes the general use which she makes of the conference period as follows:

> My first visit to a class is for the purpose of taking stock of the pupils in it and for preparing to understand something of the task of the one who must teach it. I watch the reactions of pupils as closely as possible, and make mental notes of whatever attitudes or habits seem significant. At my first conference with the teacher we pool what she has found out about the class through teaching it and I through observing it. In connection with these impressions we study all the data available: ages, I. Q.'s, achievement records, formal and informal test scores, vocational guidance records, etc.
>
> Individuals often require particular study. With the clearest possible picture of the abilities and needs of the pupils before us, we review what the course of study offers of value to them and mark off just what we believe will be most profitable for them. We agree upon the procedures to be followed in helping these pupils achieve the standards we both believe possible and desirable.
>
> My next visit is for the purpose of observing whether or not the pupils are being benefited by what we planned for them in the previous conference. I watch particularly for any evidence that the standards we set up or the activities we prescribed need further modification. If carrying out the policies agreed upon seems to be causing the teacher any undue difficulty, I concentrate upon the discovery of whatever it is that hampers the facile execution of her plans.
>
> At the conference following this lesson, we discuss whatever appeared in the lesson to indicate that the pupils are, or are not, moving toward the established goals. If the evidence is reassuring, we are confirmed in our faith that we were on the right track in our previous conference. We then plan to keep the pupils moving steadily on in that direction. If, on the contrary, certain individuals or the group are not reacting favorably, we reach at least a tentative conclusion as to cause and

remedy. If the cause of failure lies in the teacher's administration of the plan rather than in the plan itself, I rarely find that I need to tell her so. When conferences of this type are the usual order, the teacher herself brings up the weak points in her teaching and asks what she can do about them. We treat pedagogic flaws objectively as things that affect the pupils' progress and hence are to be cleared away.

The following are typical cases of conferences held by supervisory officers with individual teachers in their attempt to improve teachers' work. They have been reported by supervisory officers in different school systems and are presented almost verbatim. The reader will observe that certain topics discussed are of far greater importance than others; and that the ability of the supervisors to handle the problems presented varied widely.

A. Elementary Schools

These examples were submitted by principals and supervisors of elementary schools:

1. *A Reading Lesson with Third-Grade Pupils*

A third-grade reading lesson was conducted by a new normal school graduate in a large graded school in Anne Arundel County, Md., with forty-eight children in the grade, divided into three groups. Two groups were engaged in seat-work reading, following directions from assignments on the blackboard. A group of sixteen children were in recitation with an enthusiastic and energetic teacher who had the children with her in every act.

Sixteen words from the story of "The Discontented Pendulum" were on the blackboard in two columns; such as, dial, complaint, continue, confess, exclaimed, countenance, etc. Fifteen minutes were spent in pronouncing these words and finding phrases containing them in the story. The children were then told to turn back to the story of "The Golden Bird."

The children read orally, each in his turn taking a paragraph, the listening ones being told to "watch your books carefully and see that he reads right." After each paragraph was read orally, questions were asked to check comprehension of material read. At the end of the prescribed time for the period, which did not allow for the reading of the entire story, the question was asked, "How many liked the story?" All responded favorably because of the stimulating attitude of the teacher. "Well, you know what you are to study for tomorrow" came from the teacher. "Yes," was the reply with a feeling of general interest in accomplishment, "study the words of our new story so we can read that one well."

The children had read quite well and were apparently interested. They had, however, called many words wrong, which showed that the word study of the day before had not functioned.

There were three vital questions for conference:

1). Was it justifiable to spend fifteen minutes for study of abstract words whose meaning did not function in the story of the day?

2). Is it wise to check comprehension after silent reading or oral reading?

3). What should be the aim of listeners during a reading period?

After conferring, we concluded that:

1). Difficult words would be learned with more lasting meaning if the conquering of them meant a vital problem solved or a significant question answered or a selection enjoyed, rather than if they just meant the exercise of mental ability in saying a list of words correctly.

2). After children have sufficient reason for reading a selection, we can help to make them independent in attacking new words by considering content for meaning, by applying phonetics, by syllabication of words.

3). The type of story taught determines the procedure used and the emphasis placed on the pronunciation of words. A story given purely for appreciation would have little attention given to the analysis of words.

4). The best test of comprehension or of the children's ability to get thought from the printed page is to question them after silent reading rather than after oral reading.

5). Oral reading should be done in an audience situation—assembly programs, opening exercises, reading a story to another group, reading a section to prove a disputed point, reading a beautiful description where the author has made us see the picture so much better than we could if we expressed it in our own words, reading conversational parts in preparation for a dramatization.

6). Listeners need to do more than listen to see if words are called correctly—but here we stopped and left the teacher to plan with her group a set of oral reading standards—also to think about "What makes a good reading assignment?"

It was suggested that the teacher read Chapter 12 of a particular text on how to improve the organization and teaching of the primary school.

On leaving the classroom, the supervisor complimented the children on their skill in reading and asked them to write her of their use and enjoyment of the reading table and the school library.

These children were following the magnetic personality of the teacher and would have been equally interested in computing the square root of a number without any practical reason for doing it. The real purpose of reading and the joy in the activity were lost and the process had deteriorated into a word-calling exercise.

2. *The Inexperienced First-Grade Teacher Who Needed Encouragement*

The principal observed the class of Miss X, who was in her first year of service, and teaching a first grade. Her work was not so effective as it should have been, due to lack of courtesy, cooperation, and attention on the part of the pupils. The principal invited Miss X to a conference, to take place after school hours.

When the teacher came to the conference she was discouraged, tearful, and ashamed of her failure to hold the interest of the class. The principal tried to encourage her, then suggested that she plan shorter periods for her lessons, assign plenty of definite work to the group not reciting, and aim to arouse and hold the interest of the class. Miss X was given an opportunity to observe the work of a successful, experienced teacher of the same grade and on the same floor as herself. The cooperation of the experienced teacher was solicited and obtained by the principal. Great improvement in the work of Miss X followed.

3. *A Library Hour in a One-Teacher Rural School*

The group, consisting of all pupils in the fifth and sixth grades, was organized. A chairman presided. The minutes of the previous meeting were read.

Each pupil introduced a story from a book or a magazine article. (Magazines used: *John Martin's Book, Child Life.*) The audience listened attentively. Exclamations and comments proved without a doubt that there was enjoyment. But the stories were not on a level with the reading ability of the group. They were too easy. Some of the stories were not of real literary worth. No authors were mentioned or discussed. There was no discussion.

After each story was introduced, the chairman asked, "Who would like to read ————'s story?"

The meeting was then adjourned.

The supervisor commented upon the interest and spontaneity of the group. She felt that her problem was to help the teacher build upon this foundation. With this in mind she considered it best to evaluate, with the teacher, the lesson observed in the light of the aims of recreatory reading in the elementary school.

The supervisor and teacher listed these aims:

1). The book habit—the ability, disposition, and habit of reading books, stories, and magazines of real worth
2). Enjoyment of reading
3). Acquaintance with a wide range of stories and books
4). Acquaintance with many authors and illustrators
5). Development of tastes
6). Habit of sharing
7). Love for good books
8). Acquaintance with the opportunities and privileges of a library.

The following questions were then discussed:

1). With these aims in mind, what should be the characteristics of a library period?
    a. Informality
    b. Enjoyment
    c. Opportunity to share
    d. Opportunity to discuss stories, books, and characters
    e. Opportunity to learn authors, illustrators
    f. Opportunity to read favorite parts, as well as to "tell"
    g. Contact with the "best" of stories and books
    h. Opportunity to choose
    i. Material on a level with the ability of the group
    j. Teacher participation to raise standards.
2). Which of these characteristics did your lesson show? Which were lacking?
3). In what ways do you now feel that your library period can be improved? (Summary by teacher.)
4). What is the teacher's responsibility in securing these results? The pupil's responsibility?

Two specific references on reading objectives were recommended.

4. *The Teacher Who Needed To Find a Boy's Interest*

During a visit in a fifth grade, the principal noticed a boy who had been sent to her for tardiness. He was late that morning, untidy in appearance, and indifferent about his work. When the principal left the class, she put a note on the teacher's desk, saying she wanted to speak with her at recess.

The boy's ability, home conditions, class interests, and play interests were discussed. The principal knew the home, and suggested that using this boy as a patrol might secure the interest of getting him to school on time, and asked the teacher for her opinion. The teacher was to put the suggestion to the lad and report the reaction. For weeks the boy worked his best to get the recommendation for his appointment to the principal. Since his appointment he keeps himself neater and has never been tardy, as his duty is at 8:45 and 12:45.

5. *The Third-Grade Teacher Whose Work Did Not Arouse Interest or Stimulate Thinking*

The principal visited the classroom of a third-grade teacher whose class organization was poor and whose pupils had very undesirable habits of study. The pupils wasted time and did their work in a careless manner. There was little variety in the type of lesson that was given in any subject, and the methods used by the teacher neither aroused interest nor stimulated thinking.

At the conference with the teacher, the good points, such as the behavior of the class and the ready response of the pupils, were discussed. Then the teacher's attention was called to the following weak points: poor organization and class management, careless habits of the children and time wasted by them, indefinite and uninteresting assignments that were largely responsible for the careless and wasteful habits, lack of variety in the reading and arithmetic lessons, need for worthwhile seat-work and the careful checking with the children of the seat-work and blackboard work. Suggestions were given to the teacher for planning a program that would keep the pupils interested and busy with worthwhile work at their seats and at the blackboard. Plans for a variety of work in both reading and arithmetic were discussed and books relating to the subject were given to the teacher. The use of the speedograph was recommended to prepare different kinds of seat-work, and arrangements were made for the teacher to visit and observe a school taught by a very capable teacher who had pupils of the same groups and grade.

6. *The Second-Grade Teacher Who Did Not Relate Arithmetic to Experiences of the Pupils*

An administrative principal escorted the supervising principal to a 2B classroom to show her the excellent teaching done by Miss H. On entering, they found five girls and five boys in competition at the blackboard performing examples in four-place United States money. Such examples as this were written on the board: $\begin{array}{r}\$75.84\\ -64.97\\ \hline\end{array}$, one at each child's place. At the signal given by the teacher, the pupils ran to the board and began work. Four out of the five girls and three of the boys were perfect. Principal and teacher expressed gratification for the splendid results.

The supervising principal had seen so much of the "cues" and "props" that she questioned whether these children could meet a life situation with the same success, and she said to the winners, "I want you to play a game for me." The children were asked to erase the work from the board and take the example given. It was very much simpler, but had neither cues nor props. This was the example: "I had 75¢ in my purse when I left home. I bought six car tokens for 40¢. How much money have I now?" The children were very much embarrassed, wrote the numbers, and looked at them. One boy added the numbers. After the class had gone the principal said, "Miss H did not put it over with them." Miss H said, "I cannot understand why they failed so flatly." The supervising principal stated that it was quite apparent to her why they failed, and to the teacher she said, "Let us talk the matter over at noon."

The principal and supervising principal discussed the situation, and it was made clear to the principal that Miss H is a fine trainer, but because the child's experience is not reckoned with in the teaching, what is taught does not function in his life. Had Miss H approached subtraction on the child's ground, used his experiences in presenting it, and followed up her work with meaningful problems to second-grade children, she never would have found such a condition. Bare, cold symbols mean absolutely nothing to children, and teaching by using empty form is doomed to fail. The mistake in teaching arithmetic through form is equally true in all other subjects.

Miss H interviewed the supervising principal at noon, and was shown that she had eliminated from her teaching the most fundamental basic principle of learning, the acquisition of new experiences through old ones. By using the children's number experiences, a teacher can teach functional arithmetic to any normal child. In demonstration lessons that followed, Miss H taught children number rather than lessons.

7. *The Teacher Who Teaches a Lesson, Not Children*

The supervising principal entered a 5A room when children were engaged in a discussion of the Congress of the United States. Five pupils were finishing work at the blackboard, and other members of the group were engaged at their desks. The subject-matter was well chosen, the English was clear and correct, mechanics were skillfully used, and page effect pleasing.

When time was called, the supervisor questioned the children on the subject of the lesson. Responses revealed that much that they had written was artificial knowledge, about which they were not intelligent. These children live in the District of Columbia. They were glibly discussing the Federal Congress and its function, but were woefully ignorant when asked to tell who makes the laws for the District of Columbia, where the Municipal Building is, and to give some laws of the District that they are bound to obey.

The supervising principal then discussed with the children rules in games and play. They were at home. They named rules in baseball, basketball, football, jumping rope, and swinging. They were intelligent concerning the need of rules and gave cooperation, justice, unselfishness, honesty, fair play, and many other reasons why rules for games are necessary. They were equally conversant on the effects of breaking the laws of the game.

The supervising principal asked the children to name other places where rules were necessary for the good of all. The school, the church, the home, and civic and fraternal organizations were named. They were asked to be prepared to discuss breaking them in any one of the institutions named. They were told that Miss A, the teacher, would take charge of their assignment.

Conference with Miss A:

a. Commendation of painstaking training in the skills, fine social training, the fellowship of teacher and pupils, and the wholesome physical conditions found in the classroom.
b. Teaching situation:
    1). What is the purpose of teaching the subject of lawmakers? Which is more vital, the lawmakers or the laws made to regulate society? It is clear that all such instruction is to the end that the children become law-abiding citizens.
    2). A knowledge of the law is absolutely necessary if obedience is exacted. Respect and obedience of the law of the land have root in the home, and the teacher who knows her work will first make the child keenly alive to his duty in cooperating in the home by obeying and respecting rules. With this beginning, the child is able to reach to higher and higher ideals.

This teacher appreciated the criticism, and improvement in teaching technic was noted.

8. *The Teacher Who Did Not Know How Much the Children Already Knew*

The teacher, armed with a poor excuse of a sparrow's nest, stepped before the entire class and asked, "What is this, children?" The children, falling over one another in responding, cried lustily, "That is a sparrow's nest." The ready and lusty response said much to the supervisor, but nothing to the teacher, judging by her procedure.

Teacher: "Where does the sparrow build her nest?" "In bushes, trees, and shrubs," came as freely from the children. Teacher: "Of what does the sparrow make her nest?" The response showed full knowledge of the situation. The teacher put further questions, as "why the nest is made," and "when?" Following this, without further organization, the children were told to write what they had learned.

The observer knew they had learned nothing and that they could teach that teacher far more about sparrows' nests than she ever knew. The supervising principal told the boys she believed they knew a great deal about birds' nests, and she would like them to teach her some of the things they knew. She told them that if, when they returned from the noon recess, they brought in as many kinds of nests as they could find, they might teach the lesson.

Boys and girls brought sparrows', robins', bluebirds', wrens', orioles', and blackbirds' nests. The children were quite pleased over the project. They decided the procedure and promptly at one o'clock everyone was in his seat, eagerly anticipating the lesson. A large, stocky country lad stepped to the front and announced the participants and the part each would take. He started off with the oriole's nest. He demonstrated with nest in hand the structure, material, size, shape, where found, how secured to the support, and number of eggs. He was most interesting, and revealed intelligence which the teacher had never dreamed of. Before, he had only been occupying space in the room. The other boys and girls sprang surprise after surprise upon the teacher, who had previously expressed the thought that she had a number of stupid, overgrown country children, who responded in one word to every question. Her eyes were opened.

There was so much to say to the teacher to help her teach these children that she was called to the office, and the following outstanding needs were pointed out:

a. Better understanding of children and more faith in childhood
b. Respect for personality behind the outer self
c. Teacher preparation:
    1). Subject-matter that is worthwhile, material and devices.
    2). Definite purpose in teaching.
    3). So interest children that they are anxious to take an active part in their learning.
    4). Provide for organization, initiative on child's part, and selecting and weighing of values.
    5). Fix definite results.

This teacher attended conferences twice each month, and now shows considerable strength.

9. *Conference of a Director of Primary Instruction with a Probationary Teacher Who Needed To Improve Her Pupils' Desk Work*

In a conference with the principal it was learned that a probationary teacher in the second grade was in need of assistance.

Upon entering the room, one could not help but be impressed with the charming personality of the teacher, the ease with which she guided her children, and the wonderful attention given to each individual.

The assignment was made to groups 1 and 3. Then the teacher proceeded with a word development lesson, preparatory for reading with group 2. Her motivation was splendid, she employed all avenues of approach to make word meanings clear. The concepts were fastened with a visual symbol. The children received proper participation in use of the words. Direct application was made in blackboard units. Flash card drill fastened the new knowledge gained. The children were sent to their seats to match words and phrases with the freehand drawings.

While the lesson had been in progress, trouble had been brewing among groups 1 and 3. Here was the nucleus of this teacher's failure. In a private conference with the teacher at noon recess, the director made this remark, "Your word development lesson this morning was very good. The technic employed in teaching the lesson was above criticism. There is no doubt that the children gained the knowledge they needed. However, since my last visit I have sensed a problem in your room, and I am wondering how conscious you are of it."

The teacher admitted that she felt a falling off in her general results, but could not attribute it to any particular cause.

This statement afforded the opportunity for studying the general conditions, and caused the teacher to solve her own problem.

a. What had been the assignment? It was silent reading directions. The children's papers were collected, and the results were accounted for. Group 3 had not comprehended the assignment. The children could not attack their work. As a result, they were unable to stick to their job, and there was no achievement. The question was asked, why did group 3 fail to achieve the desired goal? The teacher, in giving the assignment, had not provided for the difference in ability of her first and third groups.

b. Why was the achievement in the first group not a true check of the children's ability? The teacher had read the assignment aloud, defeating her purpose of checking and comprehension.

c. In addition to providing for ability grouping, how could we overcome further restlessness on the part of the children in groups 1 and 3? Here the need was felt for additional worthwhile activities.

Examination and discussion of samples of seat-work already prepared for use throughout the day caused the teacher to realize that all the assignments were silent reading directions, and all involved the same type of activity—drawing. This undoubtedly would produce lack of interest and fatigue.

It seemed necessary to trace causes further toward the original source. The teacher's planning was discussed, and the plan book showed an increasing lack of richness in content material together with a complete dearth in seat-work activities. The discussion took the trend of how to plan, what type of planning was necessary; and hints were given as to how to make planning an enjoyable task.

Then classroom conditions were analyzed. What kind of environment are our children exposed to here? The classroom library, where is it? Why is there no bulletin board? Are there any evidences of real living here? Are there evidences of activities completed, activities in the making? Is there material exposed that will urge the child to want to be active?

When the director left, the teacher unconsciously summed up the conference by saying, "You have helped me so much. I understand better now, and when you return you will see improvement, because I am really going to plan more fully, provide for ability groups, and see that my seat-work is varied in interest. I will begin a project, supply a library, and make a bulletin board. I will work up some fine activities for my free period."

Before leaving the building, the director related the conference to the principal. Both the principal and the director will follow up this observation with other visits to assist this teacher in creating the type of environment that will cause her children to grow throughout the whole day.

Note: The director mailed to the teacher a mimeographed sheet of criteria for selecting seat-work, taken from the Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, *Fifth Yearbook,* with this note:

> Dear Miss A:
>
> I happened to chance upon this sheet in going through my files today, and thought it might be of some help to you.
>
> Yours truly,
>
> (Signed) Director of Primary Instruction.

10. *Teaching a Sixth-Grade Geography Lesson for the Teacher*

a. Kind of school: Modern four-teacher graded school of consolidated type. A two-teacher school and two one-teacher schools were closed, their pupils being transported by bus to this new school in a prosperous farming community.

b. Teacher: Normal school graduate with additional training received in summer school courses. A practical, thorough, conscientious teacher with twenty years of experience in teaching, untiring in her efforts to help her pupils to reach high standards. Work always planned in a most careful manner.

c. Children: 22 pupils in the class, the majority of average ability, and 3 who are taking a second year to complete the work of this grade.

d. Learning conditions: Morning period after recess. Satisfactory physical conditions for learning such as light, temperature, seating of pupils, and a well-placed accessible wall-map. The sixth and seventh grades are in one room and are taught by the principal of the school. The pupils were very cooperative, those in the seventh grade busily working at worthwhile assignments. Each class has two thirty-minute geography periods per week.

e. Class activity: Recitation based upon the textbook material in McMurry and Parkins, *Advanced Geography,* pp. 56-58.

f. Previous work and assignment: The work of the sixth grade includes a detailed study of the United States and its possessions. The class had studied the Appalachian Region, particularly the northeastern states. The main problem had been to find out why so many people live in this section. The problem came as a result of reading this statement, "The northeastern states, although so small, contain one-fourth of the population of the United States." In answering the main problem they had studied the various industries, particularly manufacturing in New England. Their minor problem at the time was, "How is food supplied for so many people?" During the previous week they had discussed *food from the farms.* For the day's work they were answering the question, "What other sources of food are in this section?"

The blackboard study assignment, completed before class, included the following:

Read pages 56-58 in your text to answer the question.

Name foods that you find, and opposite each write the section where found.

Find pictures of the work of catching fish. Each of the following words tells of some part of the work: trawl, schooner, dories, seine.

What dangers do these men face?

g. Materials used: By pupils—text pages 56-58. By teacher—physical wall-map of the United States.

h. The lesson:

The teacher began by trying to have the pupils recall their previous study of farming in New England and the other states of the northeastern section. The pupils failed completely to respond to the teacher's questions. They did not remember that in New England only one-third of the land is cultivated because the soil is poor, the land is hilly and rocky, and the climate is severe. More than half of the thirty-minute period was used for this recall, which was made in response to many detailed questions by the teacher. The teacher used the wall-map twice for purposes of location. The pupils were totally unresponsive toward the material. They were completely unfamiliar with the organization and yet had an orderly outline in their note books. The teacher was having practice in the organization of materials, while the pupils were failing to remember or use the facts, because they had no share in the organization. During the entire recall the pupils were attentive to questions that led to no worthwhile results in thinking. Rapid questioning made them mentally alert and attentive, but failed to secure a response. Fewer questions would have given opportunity for thinking and organization.

Because the recall had moved so slowly, the teacher contributed most of the new material, vainly attempting to "cover ground." Occasions where boys and girls could have thought for themselves were not provided, so of course the new material failed to capture their interest. Not a single question came from any child. No advance assignment was made, as the teacher had used 45 minutes for the period (15 minutes overtime). The following summary grew on the board as the new material was presented:

Food from other sources:
  1. Salt   2. Fish
        Chesapeake Bay center for oysters
        Gloucester an important fishing center.

i. How the supervisor helped this teacher:

During the recitation the pupils had been anxious to respond. This group is always eager to show good work. At the close of the period both pupils and teacher realized that, regardless of careful preparation, the lesson was an absolute failure. Because the teacher sensed her failure so keenly, because of her consistently fine attitude toward suggestions, and in view of the growth she had made in methods of teaching during the past five years, it seemed advisable to postpone the analysis of the work until the next day.

The supervisor suggested that she would return at the same period the following morning, and that after she had taught geography in the sixth grade the teacher and supervisor would analyze the work upon the basis of what the pupils did during the two periods. (During this conference they discussed the points which are included as comments throughout this report.) The supervisor wanted to emphasize that geography is a "thinking subject" rather than a "memory-drill subject." Instead of memorizing (and forgetting) facts, she wanted to demonstrate the use of facts in thinking, showing that children need to be trained to find and organize materials relating to a problem.

The chief difficulty seemed to be that the children were getting few facts and no power or ability to use facts. They should have used more of the available material. *The teacher had improved in her own selection and organization of subject-matter,* but she was not guiding boys and girls so *they could grow* in this respect. Instead of problem work her pupils were doing memory work. It all seemed to be a matter of "industries, products, and then more industries," instead of building up a vivid picture of life in one corner of this varied country of ours.

The supervisor in thinking what she should do the next day decided to encourage the pupils to be more spontaneous in talking and thinking. In order to accomplish this, she planned to stimulate their interest by:

Having them use many pictures and maps.

Having the slower ones use simple, concrete geographical readings, written in the delightful style of Hillyer's "A Child's Geography of the World."

Encouraging pupils to ask questions and organize facts.

Having blackboard line-drawings or diagrams made by pupils to explain a point whenever possible.

Asking questions which could be answered by the thoughtful use of facts in the text or reference materials, making pupils realize the supervisor is one of their group, learning with them.

Using practical, useful information that catches the interest.

Having them learn by *doing*—physical activity rather than passive listening.

Previous to the class period, the supervisor placed two exquisitely colored pictures upon the bulletin board, saying that she thought the pupils might be interested in examining them as they would learn something about the size and appearance of some of the kinds of fish mentioned on the previous day.

The supervisor began the discussion with a brief recall of the previous day's work, which had ended with a topic in their outline suggested by this statement in the text, "Gloucester is the most noted fishing town in Massachusetts." As an enriched study of each type of fish could not be made, it was decided that it must be limited to one.

Since learning takes place to a greater degree when started with present-day interests and experiences, the supervisor began with something that touched the lives of the children. She asked how many had ever seen codfish. The slowest child in the group responded with a glow of interest. Her mother had served codfish for dinner the night before. The fish had been packed in Gloucester and shipped all the way to Baltimore. Immediately came the questions, "Why do they pack it in Gloucester rather than Baltimore?" "Why are there more codfish along the coast of New England?" "Does the cold climate help in preparing the fish?" Thus the children began solving the problem of why cod fishing is so important at Gloucester.

Those early New England settlements were pictured, which clustered near the coast between the great forests, giving lumber for shelter, and the sea, giving fish for food. Mention was made of the fact that food, clothing, and shelter are first needs of any people. The slower thinkers located Boston and Plymouth in their texts and on the wall-map.

Next the index was used to locate available material on cod fishing. The supervisor worked for silent, effective reading of the text and reference materials by the children. They found such interesting and challenging facts as, "The fish are most abundant where the cold Labrador current and the warm Gulf Stream meet." "In Colonial days, fish from the Grand Banks were an important item of trade with the West Indies." (West Indies located.) Opportunities for questions resulted in "Why are these currents so cold and so warm?" "Why are so many fish found where these currents come together?" In locating the Grand Banks, using the key on the physical map in the text, the children discovered the water is shallow here. Then they asked why more fish were found in shallow water than in the deep ocean. When a pupil suggested a statement of no value it was discarded.

To answer these questions it was realized that a study would have to be made of the movements of the waters of the ocean; the relation between currents and trade winds, to explain the dangers met; and the relation between plentiful fish supply and shallow water or "banks," over the "continental shelf." Sufficient time was taken to make clear that these points would be the assignment for the next period.

To secure the interest and help of children of less than average ability, material was used telling how the codfish are caught. One pupil went to the board and drew a diagram of a trawl line, while another child read the description orally from the intermediate text by J. Russell Smith. The pupils of the sixth grade had not used this text in fourth or fifth grades, so they had missed the rich "first treatment" which is such an essential basis for developing the *why* approach in the grammar grades. The supervisor tried to show that pupils who have missed this background of rich detail must build it up by means of supplementary reading. For the brightest pupils, the supervisor suggested Kipling's "Captains Courageous," for its vivid description of the work of the men in dories.

At the end of the period, material had been organized which explained why the codfish come to the Grand Banks, and how they are caught. The questions not answered, forming the next assignment, were:

Why are codfish prepared in Gloucester for market in southern or far-distant ports?
How are they prepared?
Why are fish more plentiful in waters over the continental shelf?
Why is cod fishing dangerous work?
*What is the relation between ocean currents and trade winds?
*Is the climate favorable for preparing the fish?
(*These questions contributed by teacher.)

Later in the day, the supervisor met one boy who asked if he might draw a picture of a "full-rigged, two-masted fishing schooner." She suggested that he would probably enjoy reading Adams' "Cork Ship Models and How to Make Them." A girl whom the teacher had previously mentioned as a particularly lazy problem child asked if she might show the class illustrations of cod fishing in a book belonging to her younger sister.

For practice in letter writing this class was given an opportunity to write to the Chamber of Commerce, Gloucester, Mass., for a valuable booklet called "Old Cape Ann." The letters were to be read by the teacher before being mailed.

In their notebooks the children copied this list of words which they had used during the discussion and which the supervisor and they agreed should be added to their geography vocabulary:

currents
dory
cargo
Gulf Stream
refrigeration
anchor
continental shelf
cod
temperature
barometer
fleet
Labrador Current
trawl
soundings
cape

11. *Helping a Strong Teacher to Grow*

The ten preceding illustrations of supervisors' conferences with individual teachers report the handling of a particular problem at a specific time. The following case study of supervision, as well as No. 12 on pages 314-16, shows the continued growth of a teacher under supervisory guidance over a period of several years.

According to the rural supervisor who prepared this case study,

> Teachers naturally group themselves into three big classes, (a) the inexperienced teachers who are inefficient because they do not know how to discipline a class and at the same time present subject-matter in such a way as to bring results; (b) the indifferent teachers who are inefficient because they are not sufficiently interested in the welfare of the boys and girls under their care to exert themselves in their behalf; (c) the earnest teachers who are efficient because of their intense desire to help the boys and girls in their classes not only to grow intellectually but "to live" during their school life.

The teachers in this third group are not all strong to the same degree. Under the right type of leadership, these teachers should grow stronger and more efficient not only with each year of service but also with each new experience and responsibility that they meet successfully in the educational world. It is the duty of the supervisor to inspire such teachers, to help them to realize their strength by bringing new educational experiences to them, and by helping them more and more to assume responsibility.

Miss C is a teacher who belongs to the third group described above. She is a graduate of ——— Normal School and had had two years of teaching experience when, five years ago, she came into this rural supervisor's department as the teacher of Grades 1, 2, and 3 in a two-room school. The first time the rural supervisor visited Miss C, she recognized the fact that she had ability, but realized that she was not sure of herself. She was afraid to try to put into practice any ideas of her own for fear they might prove ineffectual. In order that the supervisor might help her gain confidence in herself, she commended her for the good work she had observed, then tried to encourage her to ask questions pertaining to any point of which she was in doubt.

At subsequent visits, the rural supervisor always aimed to open her conferences with Miss C by asking if there were any problems of teaching she would like to discuss with her. Then, in the analysis of the lessons taught, she tried to help her to see how she was putting into practice certain principles of teaching that had been discussed at teachers' meetings, leading her more and more to list the strong and weak points herself in her work; for instance, "The most effective type of drill work is that which provides for participation by every member of the group" was a principle emphasized in the discussion at meetings. The ways in which Miss C's drill lesson in arithmetic exemplified this principle were listed as strong points, then the way in which these points might be used as stepping stones or as a foundation for more efficient drill work was discussed. The weak points in the lesson were also listed in order that consideration might be given as to how they might either be avoided or strengthened.

On one occasion, soon after Miss C arrived, a supervisor from one of the other counties in the state came to visit. The local supervisor went with this visitor to Miss C's classroom, arriving during the morning recess, and introduced the visitor merely as "my friend." Miss C did some splendid work and during the noon hour just before the visitor left, the local supervisor told her that their guest was a supervisor from one of the other counties in the state. She looked terribly frightened and said, "Oh, if I had known that I should have been too frightened to have spoken to my classes." The supervisor knew this was only too true, and while the visitor was being shown through the building by the principal of the school, she endeavored to show Miss C how unfair she was to herself, to her pupils, and to the school system of which she was a part—how she could help by forgetting herself and thinking of her pupils and of her work. There is no reason now for withholding the title of any visitor who visits Miss C's school, her reaction now being, "I always try to remember that my visitors are much more interested in what my boys and girls can do than they are in me."

Miss C has done demonstration work with her pupils as a basis for an afternoon critique period with a group of teachers on two occasions, presenting some very fine work both times. In preparation for the first demonstration work, the supervisor outlined very carefully with her the types of work she felt would be most helpful to the visiting teachers, suggesting ways in which the educational principles she wished to present at the critique period might be exemplified in her work. In preparation for the last demonstration work, the supervisor listed certain principles of teaching in certain subjects that she wished to emphasize during the critique period and asked Miss C to tell her how she might present the subjects of study, using these principles as a basis for the method used. This time the outlining was done by Miss C, the supervisor's part in the work being to fill in gaps in order that they might have as well-rounded a unit of work as possible.

The supervisor has frequently loaned Miss C her personal copies of professional magazines and books on teaching. In some instances, she has marked certain parts of an article and asked her to judge it in terms of actual practice in the classroom; at other times, she has sent a book or article pertaining to a certain point that had come up in their discussion of work observed in the classroom.

Miss C has taken quite a prominent part in the discussion at teachers' meetings. At times her discussion has been impromptu, based upon her actual experiences in the classroom. At other times it has been prepared from an assignment sent on the regular meeting program or in response to a personal request. On one occasion this discussion centered about a report of types of phrase drills which she had found effective.

When the rural supervisor was asked three years ago to recommend certain teachers in her department who might be used as critic teachers working in cooperation with the department of education of the local normal school, one whom she mentioned was Miss C. She has been quite successful in this work, and has herself grown in efficiency as a teacher because of her association with the director of practice teaching of the local normal school who visits her regularly, giving practical suggestions as to methods of teaching, and also in the analysis of lessons.

On certain occasions, the rural supervisor has taught a lesson for Miss C, asking her to observe the work in order that they might discuss it in the light of a certain principle of teaching.

Miss C has attended summer school for two consecutive summers, taking courses that would help her not only in her classroom work, but also in her work as critic teacher with the student teachers from the local normal school.

She has consented to become a member of a special committee and will act next year as grade chairman in the revision of the local county course of study.

In working with this teacher, the rural supervisor feels that she herself has grown because of the help she has gained in the conferences, and because of the practical help the teacher has given her in working out certain policies with her pupils that the supervisor wished to present to a group of teachers.

12. *The Case of a Teacher Who Returned to the Profession after 20 Years*

History: Born in the South, 1880; attended private school for 6 years; attended a private academy, Virginia, 2 years; attended ———— Normal College and graduated in 1899; taught a short time; married; returned to the teaching profession after an absence of 20 years; holds elementary second-grade certificate issued in 1928, which expires in 1930.

Mrs. M is cultured, but had little experience with public school teaching until 1928; she has a daughter who is a high-school senior, and two other children in the elementary school.

Story of the Case: In the county from which this report came, it is customary to hold a series of meetings previous to the opening of school in September.

On the first day, as the rural supervisor entered the high-school building where these meetings are held, she met one of her new teachers who advanced and greeted her by announcing her name, Mrs. M, with charming Virginia accent.

As the meeting advanced, Mrs. M sat listening intently, but uttered not a word. Later, however, at a short intermission, she stepped up to the supervisor and said:

> Oh, everything sounds so different. It is 20 years since I left the classroom. Why, Miss L, I don't think I can ever come back. I don't even understand some of the terms you and your teachers use. I never heard of teaching silent reading. I have never seen a standard test. And what is this they call a class median? What did one teacher mean by motivating work?

The supervisor explained one or two of the terms briefly, then told her that there were several other teachers in the group who were also unfamiliar with some of these things and that from time to time they would all get together to clear up certain difficulties and to arrive at a common vocabulary. When the group reassembled, her face wore a more hopeful expression.

Two days after school opened the supervisor visited Mrs. M. She had been assigned to a third-grade class in one of the large graded schools. Within Mrs. M's open door confusion reigned. The eight-year-old youngsters were taking the upper hand. Fortunately, only a day and a half had passed. Mrs. M in her gentle tone of refinement appealed to the supervisor to tell her what to do with "these rude children who would not behave." For a moment the supervisor was nonplussed at her helplessness, so she asked the teacher if she might have her class for the first lesson on her schedule. This particular supervisor had not been supervisor of these primary pupils the year before, and she felt that she needed to become acquainted. She also wanted time to think and time to study this class of "rude children who would not behave."

The language lesson which followed was an oral one and the class responded well. By the close of the period, the children had shown the supervisor that they were just normal third-grade pupils. They were ready for work and really worked hard. After assigning one-half of the group language seat-work for their study period, the supervisor passed to the other section for an oral reading lesson. She felt that there was no need to present a silent reading procedure just yet. Mrs. M was not ready for it. The supervisor continued to work until recess. As she was leaving the room after appointing an hour for a conference, Mrs. M said, "Besides these written notes I have just taken, I have two others—be natural and expect much." She then added that she was surprised how much her class was able to contribute in the directed oral language work.

Three days later the supervisor returned. She was afraid to stay away longer. Better habits were now in the making. When asked to take the class, she found opportunity to tell the children that they were working rather well together and that Mrs. M would soon expect them to do big things. One little boy said, "We like to work hard." The atmosphere of the room told the supervisor that pupils were assuming greater responsibility and that Mrs. M's natural courtesy and refinement were being reflected in some members of her class. This time the supervisor did not stay long, just long enough to give a "teaching lesson" in spelling. She left and remained away for ten days.

When the supervisor came again, Mrs. M was cheerful and her class was busy, although the opening bell had not rung. This was her greeting:

> I have read every word of that little white silent reading pamphlet that you sent me last week, and I hope you will have time to take one section of my class for a silent reading lesson while I take notes on what you do. Will you please take that part about the three procedures?

The "A" section and the supervisor went to work and when they had finished, a boy raised his hand for Mrs. M and the supervisor overheard his quiet question, "Mrs. M, won't you give us some reading just like that tomorrow?" The supervisor was ready to leave for another room, but as she crossed the room toward the door, the "B" section sat up straight and made a show of their open readers and one little voice piped, "It's our turn now." The supervisor stayed twenty minutes longer with the "B" section. They, too, were eager to "have it again tomorrow."

Just a week later standard testing work began. The supervisor next met Mrs. M at a scoring meeting. After she had quietly scored and exchanged her papers for checking, she came to the supervisor for help in charting results for her class. Many of the other teachers had started on their class graphs, having had experience the year before. With some help, Mrs. M soon had her chart finished, and as the teachers were comparing graphs, Mrs. M said, "Why look, my pupils are nearly up to the standard median in paragraph meaning." The supervisor thought of Mrs. M's question at the general meeting in September, "What is this you call a 'standard median.' "

At the next primary teachers' meeting, types of remedial work in reading were planned, and Mrs. M was no longer a silent member. She could take her part. She was handling some silent reading procedures and was happy to make contributions and to ask questions.

Later on she diagnosed her pupils' errors in problem solving in arithmetic and formulated some definite plans to overcome type errors. She has been called upon to report on these at teachers' meetings.

The special teacher of music reported during the sixth school month that Mrs. M's pupils showed greater growth than any parallel grade in the county. This did not mean that they stood first, but that they had shown more improvement. They had learned from the special teacher how to take elementary tonal dictation and were able to sing from fifteen to eighteen songs. This implied that Mrs. M had followed up the special teacher's lessons with care.

Mrs. M's report of her last mothers' meeting includes work taught and a comment upon the reactions of the mothers after the meeting.

Recently, Mrs. M had occasion to write the supervisor about her school roll book. She included this message of appreciation: "You have helped me over numerous rough places this year, and this is why I turn to you now."

The supervisor, in commenting on Mrs. M's professional development, said:

> This case is showing me that it is worthwhile to diagnose an individual teacher's difficulties and to make definite plans for improving her professionally. It benefits not only that teacher and the supervisor, but in a measure carries over to the dozens of other teachers with whom the supervisor comes in contact.

B. Junior High Schools

The following examples of conferences with individual teachers were furnished by principals, heads of departments, and supervisors of junior high schools. They are presented almost verbatim. The reader will observe that certain topics discussed are of far greater importance than others; and that the ability of the supervisors to handle the problems presented varied widely.

1. *An Indifferent Class of Boys*

Miss B had been appointed to teach English in the junior high school the year after her graduation from college. She had had no training except a nominal teachers' course in college with its ten hours of practice teaching. During the first two years as a teacher, she was fortunate in having only academic classes assigned to her. Among her classes at the beginning of her third year was a group of boys taking the technical course. All of these boys who were not utterly indifferent to what went on in the English class were actively opposed to it as an effeminate and sickening waste of a man's time. To the supervisor it was evident that the class had impressed its valuation of the course upon the teacher. She had lost faith in the possibility of ever making it mean anything to them. This conclusion was not only the result of her own discouraging experience with these pupils; other teachers had told her that most of them were "tough" and "hard-boiled," and the rest lazy and stupid, and she needn't hope to get any work out of them. The boys had reached the stage of resignation to boredom, and the teacher of resignation to being balked.

Much of this came out in the first conference with the teacher. Miss B ended her tale of woe with the statement, "In short, these chaps simply haven't any use for anything that goes on here."

"Well," said the supervisor, "let's look at the course of study and see what there is in it that could be of use to these boys if we could win them to accept it. Let us sum up all the desirable things they are doing in school and out, and see what there is in the English course that might help them to do those things better."

The teacher and supervisor found that they had a working knowledge of what these boys did in school, but of what they were doing outside nothing was known. The teacher commissioned herself to discover all she could about the interests and ambitions and hobbies and jobs and sports and reading of these boys. She brought her findings to the next conference. With the supervisor, she analyzed her resources for activities and materials that should enable the boys to go on doing the same things with a finer spirit or a deeper understanding or a better skill. Just how the teacher would relate each unit of English work with the boys' other activities so that one would serve the other was worked out by the teacher with the help of the supervisor. At this point, the need for understanding individual differences in achievement became apparent. It was necessary to discover what part of the work planned for him each boy had already accomplished, and whether he possessed the requisite foundation for achieving what remained to be done. The supervisor and the teacher together made out an inventory test which was intended to reveal to the boys themselves what they had still to accomplish. The supervisor explained the value of letting each boy keep a record of his own progress from this point forward. The conference ended with the teacher's faith in her ability to interest the boys fully restored.

2. *Composition Revision*

Miss A brought a feeble lesson on composition revision to a tottering end, and followed her ninth-grade pupils into the corridor. After an interval presumably divided between hall duty and collecting her embarrassed wits, she returned to the classroom and the waiting supervisor.

"Well, Miss ——, that was rotten, wasn't it?"

The supervisor laughed and replied, "I'm glad you didn't leave that for me to say. What makes you call it rotten?"

The teacher gave her lesson a more merciless review than the supervisor would have had the heart to give it. The supervisor noted each point on which the teacher arraigned her own performance:

1). The lesson was not adequately prepared.
2). To the pupils it was purposeless and uninteresting.
3). I did most of the talking and practically all of the work myself.
4). My questions weren't good and I suppose I kept repeating the children's answers. I've got that habit.
5). I didn't leave myself time for the assignment, and the children were so bored by that time I didn't think they knew what I was talking about anyway.

When the teacher had finished her catalog of errors, the supervisor suggested that they take them up one by one and discuss the opposite of each of them.

1). Just what is adequate preparation for a lesson on theme revision? Suppose we each had to give one tomorrow, how should we prepare for it?
2). Under what conditions will theme revision have a purpose, evident and acceptable to these pupils?
3). How can the responsibility for such work be thrown upon the pupils? What percent of them might we expect to participate in the oral discussion?
4). What types of questions are good? How can a teacher acquire skill in asking such questions? How can a teacher learn to let a pupil's answer alone?
5). If we were giving a similar lesson tomorrow, when and how should we make the assignment?

When a satisfactory answer to each of these questions had been derived, the supervisor said she hoped she would be invited soon to see another lesson on theme revision. In the meantime, she suggested that if the teacher wanted to hear someone who had reduced questioning to a fine art, she might slip into Miss J's room when she had a free period. (The supervisor happened to know that Miss A would be welcome there and that she would not be discouraged by the skill of a teacher much older than herself.)

3. *Adapting a General Language Course to a Class of Superior Students*

The head of the language department, after visiting a class, placed the following report in the hands of the teacher, pending a conference with her.

Supervisor's Report

(Head of Department)

Teacher: Mrs. B *Date:* October 17, 1929
Group 8B *Entered:* 12:30 *Left:* 1:15
Type of Lesson: General Language. Developmental type showing growth of written communication. Interest of pupils much better than on previous visits.
Activity of Pupils: Class atmosphere much more wholesome than on any previous visit. I believe this is due to better planning of work and more prepara-

tion. Pupil effort much more intense. I still wonder if the work is making sufficient demands on these pupils.

Teacher's Part in Lesson: It always seems to me that this type of lesson should involve more demands on pupils. I would substitute preparation, reading, and research in place of volunteer suggestions. Teacher is getting more and better material to aid in instruction than on previous visits.

Is conference suggested to teacher: Yes—October 17, 1929.

Signed: R. A. W.—Head of Department.

In this case, the teacher had a definite problem. She had recently taken over several classes in general language in which the intelligence level of pupils involved was much higher than of those with whom she had been dealing. Her problem was to make adjustments in the type of work offered in order to provide material for these rapidly moving groups.

The following is a stenographic report (in part) of the conference between teacher and department head.

Department Head: I liked your lesson, Mrs. B. What did you think of it?

Mrs. B.: I think my problem is still one of providing proper material for these groups of high intelligence in this general language course. No matter what the type of lesson, these children, with their experience and their reading range, are fairly familiar with the material in the course before they come to class.

D. H.: I thought your material was much more on their level than the last time I visited you. That was evident from the response. These children coming from the demonstration elementary schools are likely to come to us with a great deal of information which we are apt to list as newly acquired learning. My problem in the department is to make sure that each group will have its chance to grow in our school. They have had a wider experience than children in some other sections of the city, and higher intelligence, and our job is to make sure that our offerings challenge their resources. The last lesson gave evidence that you are meeting that demand.

Mrs. B.: The interest in the group has improved enough so that I think we are on the right course.

D. H.: What change have you made in the planning of your work which has produced the change in the attitude of the class toward the work? I'd be interested in knowing more of what you have done.

Mrs. B.: I've followed out the plan we discussed last time of making additional requirements of the class.

D. H.: Specifically?

Mrs. B.: One thing was the adoption of the General Language notebook supplementing the text. Each pupil has chosen a portion of the text and is to be co-author with the writer of the text in collecting material.

D. H.: I realize the difficulty of arousing interest through making demands. One person will make demands, and the pupils rebel; another demands, and insures renewed interest.

Mrs. B.: Of course. The notebook alone did not do it. I don't know that I am responsible, but competition has entered into the idea. The best material has been displayed and graded. I make use of the bulletin board more—Miss L, supervisor of foreign languages, made this suggestion. Anyway, we have higher standards and more intense work. A higher grade of work also.

D. H.: What do you consider your major problem now?

Mrs. B.: I still have a low percentage of interest (70%) according to the check.

This is true during the teacher control part of the lesson. This seems to me the real problem. What do you think?

D. H.: I think your idea of raising standards is the solution of the problem. Everyone likes to do a job well. I guess we all take a pride in this. Any demand applied intelligently and within reason will act as a challenge. I observe already that they appear to be giving more time to their preparation, and this is reflected in the interest in the recitation.

Mrs. B.: I think I am shifting responsibility from myself to the children.

D. H.: Good. Are you encountering special problems here?

Mrs. B.: The subject is so new that there is a scarcity of material. I notice this especially if the children try to collect material. I am amazed, however, at the reading in the library that they are doing on "Writing."

D. H.: I believe that you are pursuing the right plan. As I suggested on the observation sheet, I would carry still further the plan of substituting reading, preparation, and research on the part of the pupils, in place of the type of lesson in which the developmental plan is used entirely. Two months ago I thought I observed that the lessons were not a challenge to the mental capacity of the pupils. I note an added richness in your recitation now. The material which they have contributed, as displayed on the walls, is another evidence.

I liked those books on general language which you sent in to the exhibit. While I have not had a chance to see a great deal of material of this nature, it seems superior to me. Mr. S., director of language education, is taking them to the Kansas City convention. When you get more of them, let's send some to Miss L.

Mrs. B.: I feel better about it, awayway. I was sort of depressed last year; I felt that things were not going just right.

4. *Stenographic Report of a Conference between Teacher and Department Head on a Lesson in Junior High-School Mathematics*

This is a lesson showing the development of the formula $C = \pi D$. The teacher used the inductive method of developing the formula. Pupils measured the diameter and circumference of several objects. These measurements were recorded as follows on the blackboard, to be used later in showing the relationship (π) between the diameter and circumference.

Object measured	Diameter	Circumference
Top of basket	12 7/8	39
Bottom of basket	9 1/8	31
Bottle	2 1/4	6 7/8
Telephone dial	3 1/2	11

The teacher was very much concerned about the fact that she did not get enough independent thinking on the part of the pupils. The conference between the department head and the teacher ran as follows:

Department Head: Miss X, I observed many points worthy of commendation in your lesson. The organization of the class was fine. The attendance was taken immediately by one of the pupils, and everyone was in readiness to start promptly. Your lesson gave evidence of a well-thought-out plan. It seemed to me, Miss X, that the inductive method of procedure was most fitting for that type of lesson. It was a good illustration of teaching mathematics for understanding rather than for manipulation. At the meeting of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics held at Cleveland last February, this point was most strongly emphasized. In many of the best books and magazine articles, such leading authorities as Smith, Reeve, and Barber stress the importance of understanding rather than mere mechanical procedure.

Miss X: Since one of the aims of this lesson was to stimulate thinking on the part of a larger number of pupils, why didn't we get more thinking?

D. H.: I thought that you did get a response in thinking from a fairly large percentage of the class.

Miss X: It was a good group, and I think I should have had a response from a larger number of the class.

D. H.: It is a generally accepted fact that we are not getting as much work from the bright pupils as we should get from them. Neither are we getting thinking from these pupils in accordance with their ability.

Miss X: Why don't we get a larger amount of original thinking on the part of the pupils in these particular groups? Why should we have to help them with so many problems? In my experience, I have noticed that when pupils work problems of a specific type, that I have taught them, there is no difficulty. But when there is a slight deviation from this particular type, they are completely helpless. Is the fault on the part of the teacher or the pupil? That is the reason I invited you to come in to see this lesson. I had hoped you might offer some suggestion.

D. H. I think it is our failure rather than the pupils' failure. How to improve the situation is our challenge. When the junior high schools were first organized and boys and girls were grouped homogeneously, the fast group did not do nearly as well as the average class. The reason for this, it seems to me, is that these boys and girls never had to think but could get their lessons by merely listening to the teacher explain it two or three times to the duller pupils in the class. When these pupils were grouped by themselves, they did not know how to work. They had gotten their work with a minimum amount of effort on their part in the past. It was thought that the homogeneous grouping would solve the problem, but the problem is still with us, and it is our job to find a solution, namely, to get these brighter pupils to think more and do more work than they have been doing.

Miss X, we still have the problem of getting more thinking on the part of all of the boys and girls in our classes. I am not able to offer a solution to this problem. I might make two suggestions: First, could we get more thinking on the part of the class if we allowed more time to elapse from the time we asked the question until we called on a pupil for an answer? Second, could we have several pupils put their methods of working the problem on the board, let the class discuss these methods, and with your guidance, arrive at the proper method?

Miss X: Well, I agree with the first, and I have tried the second method. The second suggestion helped some, but it didn't take care of all of the difficulties, and it left a considerable number still who are not able to think for themselves.

D. H.: Miss X, this problem is not peculiar to your situation. It is quite general throughout the department.

Miss X: I have talked with other teachers who have the better groups and they have the same problems.

D. H.: Would you care to visit someone else? You might get some help in seeing how Miss B does it.

Miss X: I would be glad to visit someone, providing she did not object.

D. H.: Miss X, I wonder if it would be time well spent for us to devote our next teachers' meeting to the problem, "How Can We Get More Independent Thinking on the Part of the Pupil?"

Miss X: Perhaps talking about it might help, too.

D. H.: Miss X, indeed I was very much pleased to be invited to visit your class rather than to come on my own initiative. You show a real desire to improve. I think you gave evidence of skill in stimulating interest by means of the objects you gave the pupils for measurements, such as the waste paper basket, bottle, and dial of the telephone. The boys and girls took an interest in measuring these things and recording their results on the bulletin board.

I thought the development of the formula $C=\pi D$ was proceeding splendidly until you introduced a new element, the radius. You brought in the radius, had the pupils measure the radius of several objects, and had them see the relationship of the radius to the diameter, then you dropped it, and returned to your original problem of showing the relationship of the diameter to the circumference. Because you introduced the radius, it interrupted the line of thought on the part of the pupils to a certain degree and caused you, as it appeared to me, to hurry the lesson a little.

Miss X: I think perhaps the radius should have been left out and taken up at another lesson. I have another eighth-grade class in which this lesson could be taught, and I will omit the radius.

D. H.: When does this class meet?

Miss X: It meets the fourth hour tomorrow.

D. H.: I happen to have a class at that hour.

Miss X: I can teach it during the fifth hour the next day.

D. H.: I have that hour vacant and will be very glad to come in and see this lesson. I appreciate the invitation and will come.

The department head did visit this class with the radius omitted and the lesson was better.

5. *Outline of Principal's Conference with an Inexperienced Teacher*

In this school, it is understood by teachers that they are expected to come into the office for a conference following the principal's visit to a class. The following is an outline of a conference with an inexperienced teacher.

Description of the lesson: An eighth-grade class in arithmetic; subject of the lesson—profit and loss; number in class—thirty-five.

Outstanding features of the recitation: Problems were unrelated to the pupils' experience; class was restless and inattentive; teacher ignored inattention and talked above the hum of disorder to those who would listen.

Point of conference—to show the teacher how to organize subject material so as to control classroom activity and insure learning on the part of the pupils.

Questions raised:

a. Have you had any recent transactions that involve profit or loss? And then I told her about my peach farm. Do you suppose children have experiences that involve profit or loss? (Selling papers, buying and selling second-hand books, etc., suggested themselves.)

b. Planning the next day's work: How can we plan the lesson so that all children will be busy and interested?
  1). Have pupils write out their own problems.
  2). Discuss with them the arithmetical principles involved.
  3). Allow time for solving problems—teacher supervises work, answers questions, and gives assistance.
  4). Plan rapid drill work for class.
  5). Make time schedule for day's work.

The principal arranged to visit the same class every day for a week, and to have daily conferences with the teacher.

6. *Kinds of General Problems Discussed with Individual Teachers Whose Work the Principal Observed*

a. Matters pertaining to the teacher himself:
  1). Appearance, posture, and voice of the teacher
  2). Attitude of the teacher, as languor, irritability, over-stimulation
  3). Preparedness in content, method, teaching materials
  4). Social and working relations with pupils
  5). Aids for the teacher, as books, periodicals, visitation

b. Matters pertaining to the pupil:
  1). Treatment of pupils as persons, individually rather than collectively
  2). Instruction in how to study
  3). Enlisting cooperation
  4). Developing interest in immediate and future school work

c. Matters pertaining to the lesson:
  1). Selection and planning
  2). Attention, getting and keeping
  3). Questions—type, formulation, repetition, distribution
  4). Ingenuity in utilization of incidents and materials
  5). Movement or tempo, as tedious, hilarious, animated
  6). Assignments—length and differentiation
  7). Tests

d. Matters of classroom management:
  1). Seating
  2). Opening and closing the class period
  3). Distribution and collection of supplies and work, with respect to economy of time and pupil responsibility
  4). Form in which blackboard work appears
  5). Room hygiene and neatness.

C. Senior High Schools

The following examples of conferences with individual teachers were furnished by senior high-school principals, heads of departments, and supervisors. They are presented almost verbatim. The reader will observe that certain topics discussed are of far greater importance than others; and that the ability of the supervisors to handle the problems presented varied widely.

1. *The Inexperienced Teacher Who Insists on Following the Lecture Method*

According to one department head, the most interesting and difficult individual case with which he has dealt during the past year has been that of a young teacher, just out of college, who insisted upon following the lecture method in teaching arithmetic.

As a corrective of this fault, the department head has given typical lessons himself, has had this teacher visit other teachers who are masters in quizzing and in developing initiative on the part of pupils, and has discussed, with reference to his particular subject, the general theory of teaching. The attitude and desire to learn on the part of this teacher have been admirable, but the improvement has been only moderate. His industry, pleasing personality, and strong desire to cooperate enabled him to obtain satisfactory results. But the supervisor frankly admits that he has not obtained complete success in overcoming an ingrained desire on the part of this teacher to impart wisdom didactically.

2. *Improving the Teaching of American History in the Senior High School*

The following case study of supervision in the senior high school was reported by a state supervisor of high schools.

The Constitution of the United States was the general topic being studied by a fourth-year class. The lesson of the day centered upon the specific subject of the executive department.

Questions were put to the class by the teacher. The class discussion centered about the qualifications, powers, and duties of the chief excutive as they are outlined in the Constitution. From the nature of the questions and responses of the pupils, it was evident that the subject was being viewed in terms of imparting information which may or may not result in the formation of desirable attitudes and modes of behavior. Erudition rather than interpretative value was the basis upon which subject-matter was being chosen. No analysis of facts was attempted, nor were individual facts treated in their relationship to other facts or larger issues or problems. Apparently the class was not getting a thorough understanding of the place now occupied by our chief executive in governmental affairs, nor a clear conception of how the presidency has come to be what it is.

When the lesson was completed and the class had been dismissed, the instructor approached the observer with the following comment:

> I am wondering how other teachers handle this topic. Whenever we reach it in our course, I am rather much concerned about how to treat it in a challenging way. You probably noticed that the class is a good one and that it makes excellent preparation, yet, as we move along in our study, I have a feeling that the educational outcomes might be more valuable if we attacked the topic in a different way. I have tried several ways, but I always come back to the analysis of the Constitution, clause by clause, as the most generally satisfactory treatment.

With this preliminary statement, the ensuing discussion naturally shaped itself about such points as the following:

a. Very few things have been definitely established through scientific investigations relative to most valuable content and best methods in teaching the social studies. Critical and analytical thinking, the aims and purposes of secondary education, the psychology of secondary school subjects, the laws of learning, and the practice of successful teachers in organizing and teaching their subjects, provide the basis upon which we should proceed.

b. Distinctions between lesson performance and learning, and between subject-matter useful *per se* and subject-matter valuable in developing attitudes of understanding and appreciation.

c. Advisability of centering the discussion and study about a limited number of the more important aspects of the place given to and now occupied by the chief executive. As examples, the following proposals were made by the instructor and the supervisor:

1). Probably some advantages in studying the powers and duties of chief executive for the purpose of setting over against them the qualifications and qualities a person should have to effectively perform the duties evolving upon him as president. What have been the previous careers, training, and education of men who have become presidents?

2). Conditions in Articles of Confederation which led to the insistence upon establishing the presidency with powers actually granted.

3). How the position of chief executive has been affected by (a) formal amendment to Constitution; (b) statutory elaboration through laws of Congress; (c) judicial interpretation; (d) custom and usage.

4). The presidents having added prestige to presidency. (The class suggest a few for study; but include Jackson, Cleveland, Roosevelt, and Wilson.)

5). Notable conflicts between chief executive and legislative and judicial departments.

6). The present situation of the president with reference to congressional legislation.

7). Comparison of powers of chief executive of the United States with the executive departments in some European country, say, England.

d. The advantages of following a laboratory procedure with classes working on such important aspects of the topic as noted above. Pupils, with the aid of guide sheets, to gather information, answer questions, and solve problems, with the teacher stimulating and directing their effort. Several periods of such study and reference work to be followed by class discussion of the theme, concept, issue, or problem involved.

e. Questions primarily originating with the instructor:

1). What supplementary and reference material will prove most valuable in giving the Constitution a humanized and vitalized treatment, or, as the instructor put it, "an historical or evolutionary treatment"?

2). Around what concepts, principles, or issues might we center our study of the legislative department?

3). What factual and illustrative material or problems might be employed to best advantage in developing full comprehension and appreciation of the place now occupied in our government by the legislative department?

4). What are some good ways of introducing the central theme or concept to the class?

5). What teachers of the social studies in nearby schools have successfully substituted directed learning periods for some of the daily "lessons"? (One, in a neighboring city, was obtaining excellent results under the unitary plan of organizing and teaching her American history courses.)

3. *The Experienced Teacher Who Cannot Organize His Work*

An experienced teacher seemed not to be making much progress in his classroom, due to his inability to organize his work. In an after-school conference, the supervisor succeeded in getting him to admit frankly that conditions were somewhat chaotic in the class that he had visited. Supervising officials seem always to visit the wrong class, from the teacher's point of view. They should always have come the period before or the period after such visits.

The teacher's attitude at first was that inasmuch as he is a specialist in his subject and has been teaching it for a number of years, the criticism might be a little unjust. It was agreed, however, that even genius might be improved, and it was further agreed that for the purpose of an experiment a written plan of each lesson might be kept available on the desk to include:

a. The objective of the lesson.
b. A topical outline of content.
c. The general procedure.
d. The assignment.

The acceptance of this suggestion led to the organization in advance of the subject-matter for the recitation. The supervisor was satisfied that much of the poor teaching on the part of this experienced, self-satisfied teacher was due to a lack of systematic preparation for each lesson.

4. *Conference of a Head of Department of Physical Training with a Complaining Teacher*

A conference with Mr. A was held following several visits. His attitude was generally one of complaint because of lack of better conditions. This attitude had much influence upon his work. Previous to the conference he was supplied with the following outline of topics which would be discussed:

a. Class organization and instruction:
  1). Use section register to locate every boy in physical education—swimming, drill, athletics, and as to grade of work.
  2). Procedure to eliminate wasted effort and time:
    a). Be in dressing room to meet classes as they enter.
    b). Attempt to reduce time of preparation of students for work to a minimum.
    c). Use student leaders efficiently.
    d). Close class promptly at bell to permit of orderly procedure and care for equipment.

- 3). Class preparation by teacher:
    - a). Minimum essentials of course of study to be carefully outlined for the semester to suit your conditions.
    - b). Weekly program to be planned thoroughly, a copy of which must be in the physical director's office Monday morning.
    - c). Squad leaders' training must be definitely planned. (Absolutely essential to conduct large classes and meet the needs of individuals as well as possible)
    - d). Provide that material to be used by class is on hand, courts marked and squad records available.
- 4). Training of leaders:
    - a). Meet classes every Monday morning at 8:10 a. m.
    - b). Use boys as leaders who can make this class.
    - c). Instruct leaders in: Methods of squad management; understandings and abilities involved in the games, stunts, and athletics; and attitude of responsibility.

General matters:

Ratings to be more than mere credit for attendance.
Keep physical director's office free from loafing boys.
Office and department rooms to be kept clean and orderly.
Bulletin boards, score cards, charts, records, to be efficiently used.
Fees, ordering of equipment, to be systematic.
Study in detail the course of study.

The conference resulted in the teacher's acceptance of suggestions the supervisor made and in addition he made observations of a helpful nature. There seems to be an effort on his part to develop a better attitude toward his work.

5. *Mathematics Teacher Who Had a Wrong Viewpoint*

A mathematics teacher, although well prepared as far as knowledge of the subject is concerned, is unpopular with pupils, and requests are continually being made by them for transfer to some other teacher. The teacher is comparatively young, has a fairly good personality, and is well physically. Although married, she has no children, and has no more than the average family cares outside of school hours.

Supervision shows adequate preparation, good lesson plan, ability to discipline, and some initiative and resourcefulness.

On the other hand, supervision shows that the teacher's manner is abrupt; she is somewhat sarcastic; she is impatient of mistakes; and she discourages initiative on the part of the pupils.

A study of her record of passing and failing pupils shows that in one semester, as to number of failures, she ranked fifth in a group of eight teachers of the subject; and that the next semester she ranked sixth in a group of eight teachers of the same subject.

A conference disclosed that:

a. The teacher felt it necessary to be unduly strict in her manner in order to maintain the respect of her pupils.
b. She felt that good discipline depended upon a more or less arbitrary manner.

c. Her abruptness and sarcasm had come down with her from her own high-school days.
d. She feared the pupils would look upon her as being too easy, and as a consequence she had gone to the other extreme.

A discussion with the above points in mind and a pointing out of the teacher's faults resulted in a revised viewpoint, which was effective in improving the teacher's service in enabling her to correct the most marked of her faults. The change placed her in a much better light in the opinion of the pupils without lessening any of the effectiveness of her work.

II. Group Teacher Meetings

The following are examples of meetings of a supervisor with a group of teachers of a given subject, grade, or special type of school. The reports of these group conferences are taken from the records of the supervisory officers in different cities. They are presented almost verbatim. The reader will observe that certain topics discussed are of far greater importance than others; and that the ability of the supervisors to handle the problems presented varied widely.

A. Elementary Schools

1. *Meeting With Teachers New to a Grade*

The custom followed by one assistant superintendent in charge of supervision in elementary schools is to hold meetings with the teachers new to each grade.

Commenting on the meeting for teachers new to the first grade and held previous to the opening of the fall term, she said:

> This meeting is held for the purpose of acquainting the teachers new to the first grade with the beginning work in order that there be as little waste as possible of time, energy, and materials. This type of meeting is especially necessary for teachers with no experience. They are unfamiliar with many of the simplest points to be considered in getting a right start. Many definite and tangible suggestions and directions are given at this first meeting.

The following outline indicates the points discussed prior to the opening of school with teachers new to the first grade.

A. General objectives:

1. To make the classroom a place of joy and happiness for children
2. To develop the whole child:
   a. Physically
   b. Emotionally
   c. Intellectually
   d. Spiritually
3. To know the status of the class
4. To develop the group to the maximum of its ability
5. To study needs of group, and make every effort to meet these needs
6. To attack individual problems.

B. Specific objectives:

1. Creating happiness:

   This is not to be confused with unlicensed freedom, which not only does not give the children any real joy, but allows bad habits to develop which result in immeasurable harm. To make and keep children happy is effected through the creation of an atmosphere of naturalness, in which they may grow and develop through natural childhood interests and activities.
2. Developing group consciousness:

   It requires alertness on the part of the teacher to lead the children from the individualistic stage to that of group consciousness—a desire and an ability to work with a group.
3. Following directions
4. Developing independence
5. Steady and consistent grouping
6. Preparing materials:
   a. Knowledge and care of materials—Crayon, paper, scissors, clay, magazines, newspapers, wood, paints, toys, blocks
7. Providing activities through which children may initiate projects:
   a. Summer experiences augmented by use of pictures
   b. Games
   c. Home interests
   d. Community interests
   e. Stories—reference to Catalogue, American Library Association
   f. Poems—reference to American Library Association Poems for Children's Hour
8. Preparing definitely for reading:
   a. Prerequisites to reading—See list given in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Chapter III, page 27.

C. Special notice—Routine to be met:

1. Record of each entrant
2. Family record for permanent record
3. Full list of all enrolled at end of day
4. Record of seating arrangement
5. Knowledge of individual building routine

2. *The Kindergarten Work Period Discussed by the Director with Her Teachers*

The following outline was prepared to guide observation and to form the basis for discussion in the conference groups:

Was there any particular motivation for the work period, either for individual children or for the group?

What was the source of this motivation?

Was the stimulus a common experience of the group; if so, what different lines of response did you observe?

What materials were used?

Were the activities during the period on different levels of development?

Approximately what proportion of the children were simply manipulating materials? What proportion were experimenting? What proportion were creatively expressing an idea?

Was this idea suggested by self, by another child, by the materials, or by the teacher?

Were any of the children idle?

Was this idleness legitimate at this time of year, or was it the result of oversight on the part of the kindergartner?

Were there any particular problems during the work period; if so, how were these met by the kindergartner?

Were the materials accessible? Were they well placed?

How were the children helped in getting out and putting away the materials?

Criticize the conference period.

Along what particular lines did it suggest possible growth?

3. *Classroom Management Discussed by Art Teachers*

a. Management—what is included in it?

The teacher may have desirable personality, skill in presenting subject-matter, and may be housed in a beautiful building, but she may not be 100 percent efficient, because of her poor management.

If scientific management has increased the efficiency of workers in other fields through the elimination of waste energy, why should not the teacher have a knowledge of this and conduct her work accordingly?

Factors in schoolroom that may be reduced to routine—not tasks that call for initiative:

Passing of classes to room
Passing of classes to board
Distributing of supplies
Discipline
Housekeeping.

Group control depends upon: (1) Physical conditions of room; (2) arrangement of pupil positions; (3) whether teacher knows his subject, and has a definite message for the class; and (4) method of questioning good.

b. Personality of teacher affecting management:

1). Personal characteristics:

- a). Appropriate, neat, and attractive dress
- b). Business-like
- c). Facial expression
- d). Lack of physical deformities
- e). Voice pleasing, well modulated, clear, not harsh and high
- f). Manner, vigorous, confident, enthusiatic, self-controlled, sympathetic, tactful, quiet, resourceful
- g). Health

2). Teaching ability:

- a). Mastery of subject-matter
- b). Selection of subject-matter
- c). Analysis of subject-matter
- d). Skill in questioning and assignment
- e). Ability to discipline.

3). Social efficiency:

a). Spirit of cooperation; and (b) Civic responsibility.

4). Professional attitude:

- a). Interest in work
- b). Interest in pupils
- c). Cooperation with teachers
- d). Ability to make use of criticism.

Assignment: Analyze yourself as a teacher. What improvement would you like to make in your management? In your personality?

4. *Demonstrations in Reading*

In Detroit, after a supervisor has decided upon a method, and the technic of instruction has been determined, it becomes necessary for him, with the help of principals and district principals, to acquaint teachers with the method. The teacher training in methods and technic of instruction is provided in two ways. The first is by the direct method, in which the supervisor talks with the teacher or provides a demonstration for a group of teachers. The second is the indirect method, in which the supervisor provides a demonstration for principals or department heads, and these officers in turn present the method to the teacher.

The following report illustrates the indirect type and represents actual notes taken at a meeting attended by the supervisors of reading, a district principal, and a few other principals, in whose presence two demonstration lessons were taught—one under the direction of the primary supervisor of reading, and the other under the direction of the upper-grade supervisor of reading. The lessons are omitted, but the notes show the nature of the discussion which took place while the supervisors were demonstrating their methods to the principals.

District Principal:

Miss W, could you tell us, in a few words, the main points that are to be stressed in the lesson we are to see in lower-grade reading?

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

We all know that a vocabulary of common background words is necessary, so we are taking this opportunity to bring to your attention a method which can be used to help the children, who are slow readers, to acquire these words.

First Principal:

How does one know which words are included in the common background words?

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

There is a list of what is called 100% words in the course of study. These words are ones that the child meets constantly but does not recognize instantly.

Second Principal:

Do all the children have this vocabulary training?

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

The more capable children do not need the same training as do these slower readers, therefore they are not included in the vocabulary study. They will be reading a story silently to answer a motive question. Later the teacher will check their comprehension by asking the children to read orally just the sentence that answers the question.

District Principal:

Miss P, will you explain the object of your lesson?

Upper-Grade Supervisor:

It has been observed that so much of the oral reading of the slower group has become mere word calling, and the children seem to comprehend very little of the material. Therefore, today you will see a class procedure whereby the children read aloud for the thought, and at the same time the teacher's attention is called to troubles in vocabulary that each individual has.

First Principal:

How is the child's mind centered on the thought of the reading when the teacher is calling his attention to vocabulary?

Upper-Grade Supervisor:

That is the point. The teacher does not distract the attention of the child while the reading is being done. She makes note of the mispronounced words and uses them for future reference.

Second Principal:

What are the other children to be doing while the teacher is working with the C (slower) group?

Upper-Grade Supervisor:

The B (average) group will be reading silently and taking a check on their own reading. The assignment for the A (more capable) group is to select an interesting incident from their library books, which they will read later to the rest of the class. This will entail a vocabulary study and a preparation for a brief sketch of the story up to the incident to be read.

District Principal:

If there is nothing more to be said, we will see the lessons and discuss them later.

The Lessons:

The lessons proceeded as the supervisors had indicated to the principals.

The vocabulary study in grade 2B was strengthened by a variety of activities. The words being developed were put in sentences, exercises, games, and rhymes.

The upper-grade lesson showed how three groups of children on different intellectual levels can work on different things in one room. The latter part of the period was spent in having group A read to groups B and C. This was both enjoyable and worthwhile for the audience group.

District Principal:

Miss W, have you any points you wish to emphasize before we call for questions?

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

Probably you all noticed the effective methods of drill that were used. The child met the same word in several situations and used it in many activities, thus strengthening the bonds by making use of versatile associations. Another strong point was that each word was first linked up with the child's experience, giving him a basis to work from. It might have been better if the teacher had found out, by an inventory test, how many children knew the word before it had been developed.

First Principal:

Wouldn't it have been better if the teacher had not called on a second child to read the same phrase immediately after the first child had read it?

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

Yes, the chances are that the second child was repeating, not really reading. If she were to go through once and then go back, she would get real reading.

Second Principal:

How much time should be spent on drill material?

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

That depends. When pupils are tired, nothing is accomplished. The important thing is the assurance of pupils' reading recognition of the common background words.

Third Principal:

I noticed that the teacher changed the form of the word to be taught from the word to be used. She drilled on "ate," and in her phrase she had "eat an orange for breakfast."

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

In her lesson the other day, she used "want" in her phrases and "wants" in the column of words. She likes to see if the children get the difference and change the form themselves.

Fourth Principal:

Can we wait until every child gets everything before we proceed? Doesn't that slow a lesson up a great deal?

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

No, we cannot always wait, but I think many teachers go too far the other way. Of course, on the other hand, some lessons move so slowly the more capable children lose interest.

District Principal:

I visited a room the other day where the 100% words were printed on a chart directly below the blackboard and the chart was arranged in such a way that other words could be added. When words were missed, this chart could be referred to.

Lower-Grade Supervisor:

That is a good plan. It is a good idea also to have a "trouble list" on the blackboard, then it can be changed from week to week.

District Principal:

Miss P, do you want to sum up the points in the upper-grade lesson before we open up the general discussion?

Upper-Grade Supervisor:

I think one of the most obvious points in the lesson was the way each group took care of itself when the teacher was busy. Each group was doing something worthwhile. The C group read orally the first part of the period, and the A and B groups were working silently on their individual assignments. When the A group read to the B and C groups, at the end of the period, the audience groups were not only enjoying it but getting a great deal of good out of it. They made notes of any words they didn't understand, and asked questions of the reader regarding the meaning of these when he had finished.

First Principal:

The main difficulty of the children of the C (slower) group seemed to be their lack of comprehension of the material when they read it orally. They didn't know when they had answered the question.

Upper-Grade Supervisor:

That is because we have emphasized vocabulary, and oral reading has become word calling. Our objective now is to get the thought from oral reading.

Third Principal:

Don't you think the story was beyond the actual intelligence or ability of the children?

Upper-Grade Supervisor:

Yes. The teacher should have related the incidents in the book with the child's experiences.

Fourth Principal:

Is there sufficient material written within the range of the child's experience?

Upper-Grade Supervisor:

The ideal thing would be to have readers written within the experience of the children, and possibly broaden their experience a little. Since the material is not available, we have to give them that experience as far as possible vicariously.

We have to remember that the teacher called on the poorest readers purposely, so the points we asked for would be brought out.

District Principal:

In summing up the main points of the lesson, I would say, that since vocabulary training is very important, particularly with the C group, we need to give special attention to this phase of the work. It seems desirable to develop word recognition in connection with oral reading. We should stress the importance of comprehension in oral reading rather than on a list of isolated words. The A group can influence the vocabulary of the slower readers, as we observed in the upper-grade lesson, by their use of a larger choice of words and by their ability to explain the meaning of the words used when called upon to do so.

B. Junior High Schools

1. *Needs of X, Y, and Z Groups Discussed*

In a certain school, at the beginning of the semester, the personnel of sections is determined after careful study of intelligence quotient, chronological age, and school achievement records. Sections are so designated that teachers and pupils do not know in advance whether the section is an X, a Y, or a Z group. After six weeks of work the principal calls a meeting of all teachers of the section to discuss the needs of the group and to plan a program suited to their needs. This meeting is postponed for six weeks so that teachers may first become acquainted with the children as personalities rather than as points on an intelligence scale. Several days in advance of the meeting the principal distributes among teachers the following question?

a. What are the needs of the section:
   1). In background of subject-matter?
   2). In social adaptation?
   3). In physical development?
   4). In citizenship training?

b. How to meet the needs:
   1). Which of the needs should be met through classroom instruction?
   2). Which through an activities program?

c. What can your subject contribute to the meeting of these needs?

d. What provision for meeting these needs should be made in the general program of the school? To illustrate, organization of clinic classes and special teacher assignments:

The principal opens the meeting with a discussion of the questions assigned. He then distributes charts showing the rating of the group, and the placement of each child in relation to the group. Transfers are made from section to section where the judgment of teachers seems to warrant the transfer. Few transfers are made. The program for this group is then determined as a result of this conference. Few changes are made in the personnel of the section during the three years of junior high school.

2. *Teachers of Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grades Test Out Practicality of Socialized Recitation*

According to the report of one supervising principal, there is a general need for a better understanding of socialization in the classroom. Some teachers are grasping the underlying principles and developing a real technic. Some seem desirous of learning, but have neither the underlying philosophy nor the technic. To overcome this difficulty, the supervising principal called together the principals and the teachers of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades for a discussion of this method of procedure. Some fifth-grade teachers were present at their own request.

The following questions were sent out as the lines along which the discussion would be directed:

a. Of what does socialized work consist?
b. Why have it? Its value.
c. Can slow children be so taught?
d. Hand raising. Is it desirable?
e. Calling out group. Can it be done? Is it worthwhile?
f. Achievement in light of socialized work.

Two or three teachers were requested to be prepared to lead in the discussion. For each topic, the supervising principal chose a teacher who was enthusiastic about socialized procedure, and one who was not so enthusiastic.

Tables and chairs were arranged so that the grouping of the teachers at the meeting was favorable for discussion.

As leader, the supervising principal tried to maintain the same attitude toward his group that a teacher is expected to have toward his class—coming into the discussion when necessary, but putting the responsibility on the group. The teachers who are successful in this type of work in their own classrooms were likewise leaders here. The principals also entered into the discussion, but not so as to monopolize it.

At five o'clock the discussion showed much warmth, and many were participating, but several topics were not yet touched upon. They agreed to dismiss, and meet at another time.

Throughout the two meetings, other topics came up for attention, such as:

a. Need for check-up on accuracy.
b. Difficulties in getting equal distribution of participation.

By the close of the second meeting, every teacher except five had taken some part in the discussion.

The following conclusions had been reached:

It is important to believe firmly in the socialized recitation in order effectively to put it into operation.

Socialized work develops worthwhile characteristics more fully than is done in a teacher-dominated school.

Slow children can be so taught. While the subject-matter handled by slow children under this method is simple, its value as a means of learning social adjustment is very great. This need of learning to adjust is most imperative for over-age children, who are soon to go out into life where the ability to get along with one's fellows means success or failure.

Hand raising as an indication that the child is prepared to recite is unnatural, and while it is a habit difficult to break up, it has no place in a well socialized group.

It is almost impossible to carry on an activity program with furniture screwed to the floor. Wherever it is possible to make provision with extra chairs and benches for small groups to be called out from the main class, it is desirable and provides a situation more conducive to such a program.

Greater progress is made in fundamentals as shown by the standardized achievement tests under the socialized method of instruction.

Observation of this method where it is being carried on most effectively should be arranged for groups of teachers who feel the need for it.

III. Relative Effectiveness of the Group Supervisory Conference and the Individual Supervisory Conference

The group supervisory conference is less time consuming than a series of individual conferences and it gives the individual teacher the benefit of questions raised by other members of the group. On the other hand, in the individual conference the supervisor's undivided attention is directed to the teacher's specific needs. Measured objectively, what is the relative effectiveness of the group and of the individual conference? Many studies will have to be made before this question can be answered conclusively. One study has already been made.[1]

This study was undertaken October 1, 1927, and was finished May 1, 1928. It was limited to forty-eight rural, one-teacher, elementary schools whose teachers had not been supervised except by the county commissioner of schools. Only pupils of grades four to eight, inclusive, were considered in the final results of the study. Supervisory attention was limited to two school subjects, reading and arithmetic.

The date gathered in the study consisted of: (1) Teacher data in the form of personal and professional information concerning age, professional preparation, teaching experience, and form of license; (2) Notation by the supervisor during the course of the study; (3) Pupil data made up of the statistical results of the tests used in the study.

The procedure included these eight steps:

1. Three preliminary tests were administered to each of seven hundred fifty-six pupils during October, 1927. The tests used for the purpose were: The National Intelligence Test, Scale A, Form 1; the Sangren-Woody Reading Test, Form 1; and the Schorling-Clark-Potter Survey Test in Arithmetic, Form A. The two achievement tests were repeated in corre-

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[1] Fuller, Henry Harrison, *The Relative Effectiveness of the Group Supervisory Conference and the Individual Supervisory Conference*, Doctor's Dissertation. School of Education, University of Michigan, May, 1929.

sponding forms, May 1, 1928. Five hundred twenty-three of the original number of pupils wrote the final tests.

2. The teachers in the forty-eight schools involved in the study were matched in comparable groups on the basis of data gathered concerning them, and on the judgment of the county commissioner of schools as to their teaching ability.

3. A final rating of teachers was made after the close of the study by the supervisor using the Rugg "man-to-man" rating scale.

4. The schools involved in the study were divided into three supervisory groups on the basis of teacher rating.

5. The Group-Conference Group of teachers was supervised through semi-monthly teachers' meetings. The Individual-Conference Group of teachers was supervised through individual conferences in the classroom following the supervisor's observation. The Control Group was unsupervised.

6. All the work of supervision was performed by the same person.

7. A monthly schedule of visits was prepared by the supervisor, and notices of his visit were mailed to teachers.

8. The following items of supervisory activity were made equal and constant for the two experimental groups:

a. One visit per month to each of thirty two teachers
b. One and one-quarter hours spent at each visit
c. Fours hours per month spent by the supervisor in conference with each experimental group of teachers
d. Distribution of printed materials for use by teachers of experimental groups.

Findings—Five methods of approach were employed in the interpretation of the data gathered in the study.

1. Interpretation of statistical results in terms of entire supervisory groups:

The findings from this approach show the superiority of the Individual-Conference supervisory procedure over the Group-Conference supervisory procedure to be 5.6/1 in reading achievement and 1.65/1 in arithmetic achievement, using three measures of difference.

2. Interpretation of statistical results in terms of entire grades:

The findings from this approach show the superiority of the Individual-Conference supervisory procedure over the Group-Conference supervisory procedure to be a range of differences from 1.2/1 to 14/1 in four comparisons in five in reading, and from 1.2/1 to 12/1 in arithmetic in four comparisons in five.

3. Interpretation of statistical results in terms of entire grades selected from schools whose teachers are rated in the same class, as: "Average," "better than average," etc.:

The findings from this approach show the superiority of the Individual-Conference supervisory procedure over the Group-Conference supervisory procedure by 4.6/1 in reading achievement, and by 2.26/1 in arithmetic achievement.

4. Interpretation of statistical results in terms of matched individual pupils selected from schools whose teachers are rated in the same class:

The findings from this approach show the superiority of the Individual-Conference supervisory procedure by differences in reading achievement of 10.41/1, and of 1.21/1 in arithmetic achievement by the use of three measures of difference.

5. Interpretation of statistical results in terms of matched individual pupils selected from schools whose teachers are matched in rating:

The findings from this approach show the superiority of the Individual-Conference supervisory procedure by differences in reading achievement of 3.16/1 and of 1.54/1 in arithmetic achievement, by the use of three measures of difference.

Conclusions—The experimenter draws these conclusions: First, the findings of this study show that the individual supervisory conference is more effective than the group supervisory conference as a means of improving the quality of the teaching of reading. The superiority is shown to be more than three to one.

Second, the findings of this study show that the individual supervisory conference is more effective as a means of improving the quality of the teaching of arithmetic than the group supervisory conference. The superiority is shown to be more than one and one-half to one.

Third, the extent of superiority of the individual supervisory conference over the group supervisory conference is sufficiently large to be significant in the practice of elementary school supervision.

IV. General Faculty Meetings

The following are examples of meetings held by a principal with the entire faculty of his school, or by a supervising principal with the teachers of his group of schools. They are furnished by the supervisory officers of different cities and are reported almost verbatim. The reader will observe that certain topics discussed are of far greater importance than others; and that the ability of the supervisors to handle the problems presented varied widely.

A. Elementary Schools

1. *Consideration Given to Progress through Homogeneous Grouping*

Discussion of progress made in classification:

a. Growing appreciation of value of classification.
b. Difficulties in carrying out homogeneous grouping:
    1). Geographical
    2). Brothers and sisters in different buildings
    3). Part-time classes—children of same family coming at different times of the day

   4). Necessity of large groups of very slow children.
- c. Value of a testing program comes through careful study of results and by follow-up work:
   - 1). Appreciation of faithfulness in calling attention to unwise placement of children.
   - 2). Seriousness of errors in placement of children—especially doubly promoted children.
   - 3). Changed attitudes of teachers toward slow school and slow children.
   - 4). Fine change in attitude toward homogeneous grouping is evidenced.
   - 5). Choosing teachers for bright and slow groups. Giving teacher bright children not to be looked upon as reward, nor slow children as punishment, but the endeavor is to give each teacher the group for which his technic seems best adapted.

Classification and teaching of classified groups should improve with each semester of experience.

B. Junior High Schools

1. *Guidance in the Junior High School*

The following outline presents the discussion which a junior high-school principal had with her faculty on the subject of guidance.

- a. Guidance—What is it? From the point of view of industry—an attempt to prevent the misfits of society. From the point of view of the school—an attempt to insure the highest possible development of each individual.
- b. Some mistaken notions about guidance:
   - 1). The use of tests to discover fitness for specific professions and trades.
   - 2). That if we give the student sufficient information about himself and about vocations and professions, he will then find his place in society.
   - 3). That we can solve the problem through organization.
- c. Some significant movements in guidance:
   - 1). Required exploratory courses in junior high school.
   - 2). General survey courses—general science, general mathematics, and general language.
   - 3). Orientation courses in college.
   - 4). Establishment of special classes and special schools.
   - 5). Counselor in high schools.
   - 6). Personnel director for freshmen in college.
   - 7). Emphasis upon the pre-school child.
   - 8). Adult education for parenthood.
- d. The school's point of view concerning guidance:
   - 1). Brewer's study of reasons for dismissal of employees in industry. Four thousand, three hundred seventy-five cases studied—nearly twice as many employees were dismissed for moral shortcomings as for lack of ability to do the work.
   - 2). Teaching is guidance in the development of the child. We choose the task of guiding children when we enter the teaching profession; we choose mathematics or history or music as our most effective tool with which to work when we begin departmental teaching. We must never let the use of the tool become an end in itself.
   - 3). Guidance from this point of view becomes every teacher's responsibility.
     An individual cannot function to the maximum of his capacity—as a student, as a workman, as a citizen, if his emotional attitudes be warped, immature, or lacking in proper development.

4). Illustrations from our school:

a). Helen affects a headache to get attention. Whose job is it to redirect her emotional attitude?

b). Hubert is a bully. Who can help him to cure himself?

c). Rose Lee pouts when she can't have her own way. So does her father. Who can help her best?

d). Tom is a general favorite, but afraid to assume leadership.

e). The host who take their opinions ready-made from others, and who wait for teacher to make decisions for them. Who is to guide, and how?

e. Guidance in the junior high school:

1). What is it? Providing an environment, physical, social, intellectual, spiritual, in which adolescents may grow up.

2). Main factors in the program:

a). Knowing the child, a systematic and thorough study of each child—such as home conditions, social environment, health, school record, and tests.

b). Making a program that will "open doors" to self-understanding, to interest in environment, to vision of possibilities in higher learning.

f. Topic for next meeting: How can we organize our junior high school with its program of studies and activities so as to insure the best guidance for all children?

2. *A Junior High-School Faculty Analyzes Its Student Failures—Principal's Meeting*

A high-school principal had his clerk prepare a chart showing the percentages of failure for every section of the school in every subject, with cross averages and grand averages, for two advisory periods. This he laid before his entire faculty in general meeting for discussion. It became manifest that the failure situation was chaotic, there being several cases where higher ability groups had higher percentages of failure than lowest ability groups. Failure percentages ranged all the way from zero to 70 percent.

In gathering data for the failure charts, the teachers had been asked to state reasons for abnormal failure percentages, and these also were gathered together and summarized and presented to the teachers. They then worked out together procedures designed to reduce pupil failure; the final summation was as follows:

a. Better understanding of child psychology and particularly the psychology of discipline.

b. More vitalized teaching.

c. Diagnostic teaching and testing.

d. Supervised study including teaching how to study.

e. Ability grouping.

f. Special coaching and restoratory work.

g. More individualized teaching, including the use of the "contract system" at least in restoratory work.

h. Better school administration.

i. Guidance.

j. Special health surveys and work.

k. Close cooperation of attendance department.

l. Close cooperation between school and home via the parent-teacher association and home visiting.

3. *Necessity for More and Better Supervised Study*

Realizing that supervised study is an essential feature in junior high-school instruction, one principal had a study made of its value as a means of focusing more attention on it by his entire faculty. The following questions were distributed among the teachers as a means of giving direction and definiteness to their reports.

a. How many minutes, approximately, of each period do you spend in supervised study?
b. How long have you used supervised study with your classes?
c. State in outline form your method of procedure, that is, how you conduct supervised study.
d. What difficulties, if any, do you find in devoting a part of each class period to supervised study?
e. Can the present method of devoting a part of every period to supervised study be improved upon?
f. Is supervised study worthwhile in the junior high school? Why?

C. Senior High Schools

1. *Teaching Units and Intensive Treatment of Subject-Matter*

The following outline was prepared and sent by one high-school supervisor to all his teachers previous to his regular meeting with them:

(Each teacher will read and study pages 35-48, 79-99, 153-231 in Morrison's *Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School.*)

A. The Unit:

1. What is it?
2. Sources of the unit—show how each of the following enters:
   a. The textbook
   b. Supplementary material
   c. The pupil
   d. The teacher's experience
   e. Social needs
   f. Objectives of secondary education.
3. What unitary organization aims to do for pupils
4. Demands it makes upon the teacher
5. A specific illustration of a large unit of work.

B. The Approach to the Unit:

1. The pretest:
   a. What it should do for the pupil
   b. What it should do for the teacher
   c. Need of it
   d. Ways of making it.
2. Corrective teaching:
   a. Ways of doing it
   b. Difficulties, if any, of carrying out the idea involved.

3. The preview:
    a. Ways of making it
    b. What it should do for the pupil
    c. Testing for its effectiveness.

C. The Study of Assimilative Material Comprehended by the Unit:

1. What the approach to the unit has to do with this
2. Suggestions for carrying out this part of the teaching cycle in keeping with the spirit of the unit idea.

D. Organization:

1. Its purpose
2. How it may be carried out by pupils.

E. Testing:

1. The mastery formula
2. The test for mastery, especially what it is
3. When and how it may best be done.

F. Difficulties and Dangers—

If any, in teaching by means of subject-matter organized into large units.

G. Obvious Necessary Changes—

In our ways of going about teaching, ways of organization of subject-matter and equipment, if we are to teach by means of large units.

Note: In addition to the above outline, two specific references, dealing with principles and methods of teaching high-school pupils, were cited. The suggestion was made that they contained brief but excellent statements of intensive treatment of fewer topics and hence might prove helpful in preparing for this meeting.

CHAPTER XII

CREATIVE SUPERVISION

TWO PHRASES, *democracy in supervision* and *scientific supervision,* are constantly being heard. Ideally used, these phrases stand for the highest type of supervision.

At its best, democratic supervision enlists the abilities and experiences of teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents in the cooperative enterprise of improving teaching. The supervisor who is democratic has confidence in the people with whom he works; he judges teaching on the basis of the results produced in children in terms of knowledge, attitudes, and skills regardless of whether it conforms to procedures and methods which he initiates; his classroom interview with the teacher is a real conference in which the supervisor does some of the listening; his teachers' meetings are opportunities for teachers to express freely their opinions as to the practicability of the suggestions given; he encourages the development of self-direction, self-criticism, and self-control on the part of his teachers, realizing that it takes time for growth as well as opportunity for growth.

Unfortunately, the term democracy in supervision is sometimes used as a cloak for weak leadership on the part of a supervisor, lack of responsiveness to means for professional growth on the part of the teachers, and lack of tangible evidences of learning on the part of the pupils. Carried to an extreme, it results in mere sentimentalism.

At its best, scientific supervision secures a picture of current school practices, as complete and accurate as possible, and then utilizes all scientific knowledge about subject-matter and methods of its organization and presentation. Thus economy of learning is secured through the improvement of teaching. Certain supervisory activities fall within the scientific field, certain others within the social field. As a scientist, the supervisor must be critical, analytical, discriminating, and objective in his thinking. He needs to know and to use the findings of educational research; he needs to know the best standardized tests in the various subjects, the uses and limitations of intelligence tests; he needs to know the psychology of the elementary school subjects, the laws of learning, the procedures and devices employed by successful teachers and successful supervisors; he needs to know how to achieve superior results. Fortunately, many supervisors are realizing these needs and are preparing to meet them. Fortunately, in the classroom atmospheric procedures on the part of the supervisor are more and more giving way to analytic procedures; specific advice and discussion are taking the place of such general criticisms as: "Your assignment was poor," or "You do not ask good questions," or "You are doing fine work."

Unfortunately, however, what often passes for scientific supervision may over-emphasize quick and apparently objective results in the Three

R's, may force teachers to adhere stringently to the normal curve in the distribution of their marks, and may in consequence be more or less responsible for the stultified growth of both teachers and pupils. Carried to an extreme, this bungling use of scientific tools results in an undesirable standardization of the technics of teaching and of supervision. Neither "an enthusiastic ignorance of social well-being" nor "an ignorant enthusiasm for the science of education" has a place in supervision that is genuinely democratic and scientific.

Since the two terms, *democracy in supervision* and *scientific supervision,* have both excellent and unfortunate connotations, since they can be used to refer to the very best in supervision or used by extremists to defend improper practices, an attempt is here made to find a rational basis for supervisory method by merging certain elements of the democratic and the scientific into a resultant total which may be called *creative supervision.* Creative supervision provides an opportunity for each teacher and each child in a school system to grow through the exercise of his talents and abilities under expert professional encouragement and guidance. The ideals of instructional supervision are realized to the extent that the superintendent is able to organize a cooperative professional program based on a "mutual recognition of interests" which will intelligently utilize the results of scientific research and which will reach the goal for creative supervision set up in the first chapter of this book; namely, the development of a group of professional workers who, free from the control of tradition and actuated by the spirit of inquiry, attack their problems scientifically in an environment in which men and women of high professional ideals may live a vigorous intelligent, creative life.

The creative supervisor needs scientific-mindedness. He also needs a sympathetic social-mindedness, a philosophy of life and of education, a recognition of the supreme importance of the human element. Teachers are individuals with varying needs. The supervisor is a special student of educational problems. His social-mindedness needs to look critically upon his scientific-mindedness, and his scientific-mindedness needs to look critically upon his social-mindedness. The *understanding* supervisor strives for uniformity of purpose rather than uniformity of practice. By emphasizing creative purposes and principles rather than inflexible practices, patterns, and devices, he endeavors to develop individual talents, originality, executive ability, and particular teaching aptitudes. This does not mean that the supervisor allows teachers to persist in wasteful methods of teaching in the face of demonstrated ways of effective teaching, or that he gives way to the vagrant likes and dislikes of teachers, but rather that he leads them to accept and to apply those principles which are fundamental to growth and progress. He must know *how* and *when* to guide, persuade, encourage, direct, command, warn, lead, and follow.

Throughout this book are found many examples of supervision at its best. The Minneapolis supervisory program in reading, described in Chapter VI, on pages 108-14 is an example of scientific method in supervision. This program included the training of the Minneapolis principals in the recognition of major reading objectives by means of mimeographed descriptions of lessons, observation by each principal in his own building for the purpose of securing a cross section of current practices, determination of the different phases of the teaching of reading on which the teachers wished help, demonstration lessons taught by volunteer teachers, discussion by visiting reading specialists and research specialists, direction of the attention of teachers to the best available literature on the subject; followed in time by a second survey to determine the objectives of reading lessons taught by the teachers after the period of training, and finally, a comparison of the first and second surveys, which showed unmistakable and marked improvement in methods of teaching reading.[1]

The Springfield, Massachusetts, procedure for developing a course of study in the social studies, described in Chapter VIII, on pages 198-9, is an example of democratic method in supervision, resulting in a curriculum more nearly adapted to children's interests, needs, aptitudes, and age and grade levels, the professional growth of teachers who participated in the project of curriculum making, and the maintenance of high standards of supervisory efficiency.

The Maryland supervisor quoted on pages 124-6 in Chapter VI, through exercising the four supervisory functions discussed in Chapter II, namely, inspection, research, training, and guidance, affords an excellent example of creative supervision. Her plan, originally designed for a year's work with the teacher, was comprehensive enough to extend over several years and to take care of the most important phases in the growth of the teacher and the development of the teacher's pupils. The supervisor exemplified creative supervision by diagnosing and evaluating critically and objectively with the teacher the latter's strengths and failings,[2] making definite suggestions for improvement,[3] basing these suggestions on the fundamental principles and purposes of education; guiding and encouraging the teacher towards habits of self-appraisal and self-activity, realizing that it takes *time* as well as opportunity for a teacher to grow; commending and encouraging the teacher when necessary, helping and demonstrating when necessary, criticizing and urging when necessary.

We need to work toward a type of supervision that is at the same time more scientific and more social. The value of that supervision which is based on the formal gathering and the study of objective, impersonal data is fully recognized, but this can never result in creative supervision without the constructive thinking and the discriminating judgment demanded of the supervisor by activities social in nature. In fact, what is often termed "objective data" needs to be carefully scrutinized. There is need of being more discriminative and analytical than is our present practice. There is danger that too much reliance be placed on these data in the matter of interpreting individual pupil needs. Sometimes a pseudo-scientific-mindedness may enable a less competent or a less talented supervisor to appear for a time to advantage. He may impose a lengthy "scientific" rating scale for the judgment of teaching and he may inaugurate a pattern program of remedial work based on standard test measurements. But if these devices stimulate nothing more than formal responses on the part of the individual teacher, there will be little result in the way of creative enthusiasm or independent, constructive thinking.

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[1] See pages 113-4 in Chapter VI for discussion of ways in which the improvement was manifested.

[2] See lists on page 125 in Chapter VI.

[3] See list of suggestions on pages 125-6 in Chapter VI.

Supervisors must be concerned with questions such as these:

How many pupils failed this year?
What caused the failures?
What can be done about them?
How well should pupils add?
How many words and what words should elementary school graduates know how to spell?
Why do so many pupils fail to understand what they read?
Why do pupils like or dislike poetry?

Likewise, a spineless conception of what constitutes democracy in supervision sometimes leads supervisors to browse about, pat teachers on the back, sympathize with their grievances, and indulge their whims. When persisted in, this kind of supervision usually results in an easy popularity and a great deal of sentimentality. Supervisors are needed with imagination, vision, understanding, a sympathetic intelligence, a sense of humor, an open mind, and always with a personality that is positive rather than negative.

A great need in supervision is that it be well-balanced. If the supervisor over-works or over-stimulates his teachers, that is bad; if he fails to stimulate them or fails to gauge their capacity for accomplishment, that is equally bad. To emphasize science in education to the neglect of social changes around us, or to emphasize democracy in the face of contradictory objective data, results in a lopsided development. Supervision is creative when objective standards, built upon the findings of research and the best in educational theory and practice, are applied subjectively with the human element in mind. It is creative when teacher and supervisor accept the same professional aims and impersonal standards; when the results of scientific research are applied with intelligent discrimination; when there is a common understanding as to the needs of the pupils and of the school; when teacher and supervisor are working together upon the specific problem of an individual teacher; when the teacher expects, receives, and welcomes the frank and constructive criticism of the supervisor; when teachers are permitted and encouraged to develop sound teaching methods in accordance with individual talents and without being restricted by a superimposed pattern; when a degree of enthusiasm, a fine attitude, and a healthy morale prevail among pupils, teachers, and supervisors. When such conditions prevail supervision will be creative.

OFFICIAL RECORDS

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

Atlantic City Meeting, 1930

To the President, Excutive Committee, and Members of the Department of Superintendence:

IN ACCORDANCE with the provisions of the constitution adopted at the Chicago convention in 1922, the eighth annual report of the activities of the Department of Superintendence is presented herewith. It covers the period from January 1, 1929, to December 31, 1929.

The Cleveland Convention—"How Can the Public Schools Better Serve Democracy, Increasingly Produce a Higher Type of Citizen?" was the theme selected by President Frank D. Boynton for the fifty-ninth annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Cleveland. Better financing of public education was given a prominent place. The programs particularly emphasized the fact that school officers are seeking earnestly to see to it that the money available for education shall be spent with maximum efficiency. In his address at the opening of the convention, President Boynton stressed the need for meeting constructively the problems of educational finance and for answering the critics of education with intelligence and sincerity. His address, which was entitled "Education: What Program? What Price?" was widely published in educational journals. To supply members and to meet requests, ten thousand copies of the address were printed in booklet form and distributed from the secretary's office.

The Public Auditorium at Cleveland lends itself admirably to the needs of the winter meeting. There are meeting rooms of sizes to meet all requirements. For many superintendents of schools, the inspection of the exhibits is one of the most helpful convention features. At Cleveland the exhibits were conveniently located with ample space and attractive set-up.

The winter meeting is a great clearing house of education. Convention week is crowded with a bewildering variety of events. It is the great annual opportunity for school people to meet each other personally as well as to listen to programs of outstanding merit. National committees meet and make far-reaching plans. What is said and done affects in a remarkable way the trends of American education.

The Executive Committee—Article IV of the Constitution provides that the Executive Committee shall consist of seven members. The president and the first and second vice-presidents are members ex-officio and are chosen annually. Four members, chosen by election, hold office for terms of four years, one member retiring each year. Four meetings of the Executive Committee were held during 1929, the first being in Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio, February 24. Members present were: Frank D. Boynton, Ithaca, New York, president; Frank G. Pickell, Montclair, New Jersey, second vice-president; Norman R. Crozier, Dallas, Texas; E. E. Lewis, Columbus, Ohio; Frank M. Underwood, St. Louis, Missouri; and Paul C. Stetson, Dayton, Ohio.

In acknowledgment of the fine work which each had done in the field of education, it was voted to confer honorary membership in the Department of Superintendence upon Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, superintendent emeritus of the Los Angeles, California, schools and upon William McAndrew, former president of the Department of Superintendence.

Superintendent Randall J. Condon of Cincinnati, as chairman, reported for the committee appointed to devise means for more adequately financing educational research. On motion the sum of $5,000 was transferred from the general fund of the Department of Superintendence to the new permanent research fund. A proposal for creating a $100 life membership in the Department of Superintendence, the income from which should go to this permanent research fund, was approved and Superintendent Condon was directed to submit the necessary constitutional amendment to the convention.

The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association was invited officially to participate in the winter meeting in the same manner as other allied organizations. Requests for recognition from several other organizations were received and action deferred.

Superintendent M. G. Clark of Sioux City, Iowa, as chairman, submitted in writing the report of the Committee on Lay Relations. The following resolution which had been prepared by the Committee on Lay Relations was unanimously adopted by the Executive Committee:

> Since the members of the Department of Superintendence are properly entitled to preference in assigning reservations of hotel sleeping rooms at their own winter meetings:
>
> Resolved that the officers of the Department of Superintendence are hereby instructed to include in the contract with the city which proposes to entertain the next convention a clause providing that for a period of sixty days following the official announcement of the selection of the convention city, no sleeping room reservations shall be honored except for those who hold the official hotel reservation blanks issued by the Department.

Chairman Clark stated that the Committee on Lay Relations did not favor recognition of additional allied organizations, and on motion, the Executive Committee concurred in this view.

The Executive Committee met again at Hotel Cleveland on Tuesday afternoon, February 26. Members present were: Frank D. Boynton, J. M. Gwinn, Frank G. Pickell, Norman R. Crozier, E. E. Lewis, Frank M. Underwood, and Paul C. Stetson. It was voted that all paid full-time executive secretaries of state teachers' associations be eligible to active membership in the Department of Superintendence.

On motion of Mr. Stetson, the Executive Committee expressed to Frank D. Boynton its deep appreciation for the fine work he had done during the past year as president of the Department of Superintendence.

The Executive Committee met again Thursday morning, February 28, at ten o'clock. The secretary reported that the annual election had been completed according to the constitution and by-laws and that the Board of Tellers had certified to the election of the following officers: Frank Cody, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Michigan, president; Norman R. Crozier, superintendent of schools, Dallas, Texas, second vice-president; and David E. Weglein, superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Maryland, member of the Executive Committee for four years.

Invitations for the 1930 convention were received as follows: Atlantic City, New Jersey; Chicago, Illinois; Indianapolis, Indiana; Kansas City, Missouri; Memphis, Tennessee; Minneapolis, Minnesota; New York, N. Y.; Philadelphia, Pa.; San Francisco, California; Toronto, Canada; Washington, D. C. No action was taken on these invitations.

The annual meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the Ambassador Hotel, Atlantic City, New Jersey, Friday and Saturday, May 3 and 4. Members present were: Frank Cody, president; Frank D. Boynton, first vice-president; Norman R. Crozier, second vice-president; E. E. Lewis, Frank M. Underwood, Paul C. Stetson, and David E. Weglein.

President Cody called attention to the matter of educational radio and offered the following resolution which was adopted. President Cody was empowered to take such steps as were necessary to further the purposes of the resolution.

> WHEREAS, The Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association has been urged to sponsor a movement for education by radio; and
>
> WHEREAS, this committee is convinced that there are great possibilities in aiding the work of such public and private schools as care to utilize properly directed educational programs; and
>
> WHEREAS, the committee believes that this is a matter of great public concern,
>
> THEREFORE, be it resolved that the Government of the United States be requested to study the situation, and that this committee does hereby urge the Secretary of the Interior to take the initiative in calling a small preliminary conference consisting of such officials of the United States Government as might be immediately concerned, the representatives of organizations representing public and private education of various grades, and those concerned with national chains of broadcasters.

Pursuant to the spirit of this resolution, Secretary of the Interior Ray Lyman Wilbur appointed a national commission on radio education.

Reports of recent visits to cities under consideration as meeting places for the 1930 convention were submitted by President Cody, Mr. Underwood, Mr. Crozier and others. Invitations on behalf of Atlantic City were extended by Superintendent William J. Bickett of Trenton, New Jersey, representing the New Jersey State Teachers Association; by Commissioner Charles H. Elliott, representing the New Jersey State Department of Education and by A. H. Skean, Director of the Atlantic City Convention and Publicity Bureau. Representatives of the Atlantic City hotels stated that they were prepared to abide by the terms of the resolution passed at Cleveland according to which members of the Department of Superintendence are entitled to preference in assigning hotel sleeping rooms, for a period of sixty days following the official announcement of the selection of the convention city. President Cody then recommended that the 1930 convention of the Department of Superintendence be held at Atlantic City and on motion the recommendation was adopted.

Friday afternoon, the Executive Committee held a joint session with the Committee on Financing Educational Research. Superintendent Randall J. Condon outlined a plan by which $250 five-year endowment insurance policies might be taken out by members of the Department of Superintendence for the purpose of contributing to the permanent research fund. In such policies, the Department of Superintendence would be the beneficiary. It was stated that several national organizations had tried this plan and had found it to be satisfactory. The entire matter was carefully discussed and finally referred back to the Committee on Financing Educational Research with the request that detailed plans in writing be submitted soon to President Cody for such action as seemed best.

President Cody announced the appointment of Randall J. Condon and Frank W. Ballou as a sub-committee with power to act in working out plans for investing and administering the permanent research fund.

President Cody submitted detailed program plans for the 1930 convention and requested suggestions from members of the Executive Committee. After an extended discussion, all matters regarding the program for the 1930 convention were referred to the president with power to act.

President Cody recommended that the 1932 yearbook be devoted to the subject of character education, which was agreed to, and the president was authorized to appoint a commission to prepare a yearbook on this subject.

The annual report of the Executive Secretary was presented and approved. The budget for the year 1929 was submitted and adopted. It showed an estimated income of $49,500 and estimated expenditures of $49,000.

Publications—The Official Report of addresses and proceedings of the Cleveland convention was published and delivered to members soon after the meeting adjourned. It was a volume of 302 pages. Five issues of the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association were mailed to all members of the Department of Superintendence during the year. These bulletins deal with the most important problems of education and are of especial value to school executives.

The annual yearbook is the principal publication of the Department of Superintendence.The Seventh Yearbook entitled "The Articulation of the Units of American Education" was distributed to members at the time of the Cleveland convention. This book deals in a scientific way with some of the most difficult problems which school superintendents are called upon to solve. In response to insistent demands, a reprint was made of the Fourth Yearbook "The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum." Included with it and bound under the same cover was the popular Research

Bulletin "Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum." This was the fourth printing of the Research Bulletin, the third printing of the yearbook and the final printing of each. The facts regarding the publication and sale of yearbooks are shown in Table 40.

TABLE 40.—YEARBOOKS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

Year	Title	Number copies printed	Cash sales of all yearbooks for the year
1923	Status of the Superintendent	3,200	$142.45
1924	The Elementary School Curriculum	4,500	1,364.13
1925	Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum	11,000	4,707.65
1926	The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum	12,000	8,467.94
1927	The Junior High School Curriculum	11,000	8,844.57
1928	The Development of the High School Curriculum	10,000	9,830.58
1929	The Articulation of the Units of American Education	11,000	7,842.51
1929	Reprint of Fourth Yearbook	4,000	....

The 1930 Yearbook—The Boston convention adopted a recommendation made by the Executive Committee to the effect that the 1930 Yearbook should deal with the subject of supervision, and President Joseph M. Gwinn was authorized to appoint a commission for this purpose. Their names are printed on the title page of this Yearbook. The work of the Commission has been done with painstaking care. Tentative drafts of all chapters were written and submitted to individual members by mail. At the Commission meetings these drafts were discussed and proposed revisions outlined. Each chapter was then rewritten by a member of the Commission in the light of the criticisms. The Research Division of the National Education Association cordially assisted the Commission in its work. In fact, without the aid of this Division, yearbooks, such as the Department has issued in recent years, would be impossible.

The 1931 Yearbook—The Commission on the Articulation of the Units of American Education was appointed by President Randall J. Condon in 1926. The field of this research was so great that the Commission voted to publish its report in two yearbooks, the first of which was issued in 1929. The second will be ready in 1931. Six sub-committees are at work on the report with assignments as follows: Promotion Problems, Finance, Professional and Higher Education, Relation of General to Professional Education of Teachers, Principles of Articulation and Functions of Units, and Relation of Vocational Education and Adult Education to General Education.

The 1932 Yearbook—At the annual meeting of the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence in May, President Frank Cody recommended that the 1932 yearbook be devoted to the subject of character education, which was agreed to, and the president was authorized to appoint a yearbook commission for that purpose. Superintendent Jeremiah E. Burke of Boston was appointed chairman of the commission, which held its first meeting at Detroit, November 22 and 23, 1929. The second meeting is to be held in the spring, at which time final outlines of the yearbook are to be made and sub-committees appointed to prepare drafts of the various chapters.

The Finances—The Department closed the year 1929 with a balance in the regular fund of $12,985.48. The balance one year ago was $13,232.39 and two years ago it was $9,374.68. The principal source of revenue is the annual membership fee of five dollars. The Department enrolled 1,263 members in 1922; 1,650 in 1923; 2,136 in 1924; 2,470 in 1925; 3,305 in 1926; 3,114 in 1927; 3,684 in 1928; and 3,719 in 1929. The membership distribution by states for the last six years is shown in Table 41 on page 356.

By agreement with the National Education Association, the net income from the exhibits at the winter meetings is divided equally between the Department and the parent Association, each organization thus deriving funds for convention expenses. The active work of organizing and managing the exhibit is done by the Business Division of the National Education Association. The amounts which the Department has derived from this source during recent years are as follows:

1922—Chicago	$ 3,250.00
1923—Cleveland	4,267.50
1924—Chicago	5,142.81
1925—Cincinnati	8,696.06
1926—Washington	6,830.68
1927—Dallas	8,524.64
1928—Boston	8,883.87
1929—Cleveland	14,687.26

The statement of receipts and expenditures given below covers the calendar year 1929. It includes expenses of the Cleveland convention, some preliminary charges for the Atlantic City convention, and all items of general expense. All bills were paid at the end of the year. A detailed statement regarding the permanent research fund is given elsewhere in this report.

Regular Receipts During Calendar Year 1929

Annual dues, 3420 members, 1929	$17,100.00	
Annual dues, 346 members, 1930	1,730.00	
Six-year payments, 3 members	75.00	
Yearbooks sold	7,842.51	
Cleveland exhibit	14,687.26	
Interest received	58.80	
Educational Research Service	6,362.00	
Allied organizations	150.00	
Total regular receipts		$48,005.57
Gifts for permanent research fund		2,309.67
Balance, January 1, 1929		13,232.39
Grand Total		$63,547.63

Regular Expenditures During Calendar Year 1929

Cleveland Convention:		
Registration	$664.89	
Programs	588.25	
Badges	50.63	
Publicity	154.25	
Stenotype report	117.32	
President's expense	224.03	
Secretary's expense	396.61	
Travel expense for speakers	35.06	
Hall rentals	119.00	
Music	290.20	
Health pageant	480.25	
Total Cleveland Convention		$3,120.49
Atlantic City Convention Preliminary Expense:		
Housing	158.24	
Railroad certificates	82.50	
Music	175.46	
Pageant	89.51	
Total Atlantic City Convention		$505.71
General Expense:		
Salary, Executive Secretary	$7,500.00	
Printing 11M Seventh Yearbook	8,717.86	
Printing Convention Report 4,700 copies	1,519.26	
Printing Research Bulletins	1,233.49	
Other printing	976.50	
Stationery, postage, and express	4,923.07	
Stenographic and clerical	1,676.42	
Telephone and telegraph	208.21	
President's expense	281.40	
Secretary's expense	647.35	
Executive Committee expense	868.33	
Audit Committee expense	100.05	
1930 Yearbook Commission expense	1,768.18	
1931 Yearbook Commission expense	3,253.25	
1932 Yearbook Commission expense	184.84	
Committee on Lay Relations	201.50	
Committee on Financing Educational Research	206.28	
Educational Research Service, salaries	3,561.90	
Educational Research Service, miscellaneous	1,398.90	
Surety bonds	17.50	
American Council on Education	100.00	
Convention expense, Atlanta	44.71	
Refunds—duplicate payments	30.43	
Supplies and equipment	206.85	
Total general expense		$39,626.28
Total expense for the year		$43,252.48
Balance in general fund, December 31, 1929		12,985.48
Balance in permanent research fund, December 31, 1929		7,309.67
Grand Total		$63,547.63

TABLE 41.—MEMBERSHIP OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE BY STATES, 1924-1929

State	1924 Chicago	1925 Cincinnati	1926 Washington	1927 Dallas	1928 Boston	1929 Cleveland
Alabama	38	46	61	58	43	53
Arizona	18	19	22	26	21	22
Arkansas	25	23	38	49	33	41
California	40	55	61	92	94	106
Colorado	31	38	35	46	39	41
Connecticut	52	57	84	55	104	81
Delaware	10	10	15	14	12	10
District of Columbia	8	13	30	21	28	29
Florida	8	15	31	34	34	24
Georgia	18	35	61	48	50	48
Idaho	8	5	12	10	10	10
Illinois	173	177	187	194	208	245
Indiana	74	85	100	88	89	122
Iowa	90	66	69	71	73	92
Kansas	54	56	76	77	65	70
Kentucky	21	46	43	34	40	56
Louisiana	21	28	44	49	34	30
Maine	16	20	25	23	75	32
Maryland	24	32	56	33	44	47
Massachusetts	110	115	178	121	318	192
Michigan	149	155	206	152	201	222
Minnesota	69	60	66	65	82	84
Mississippi	16	33	30	53	31	33
Missouri	59	61	69	84	79	91
Montana	8	9	13	13	10	8
Nebraska	42	46	53	44	43	44
Nevada	2	1	7	1	5	3
New Hampshire	18	22	35	19	77	30
New Jersey	106	129	188	133	200	194
New Mexico	5	6	8	13	14	14
New York	109	141	237	178	288	303
North Carolina	37	41	72	48	61	55
North Dakota	7	9	16	13	21	16
Ohio	145	181	178	159	197	300
Oklahoma	42	42	59	86	64	64
Oregon	7	8	9	10	15	18
Pennsylvania	145	173	275	193	288	313
Rhode Island	25	29	32	29	49	36
South Carolina	8	20	23	20	20	20
South Dakota	22	23	21	22	19	21
Tennessee	10	28	35	29	28	36
Texas	51	77	114	334	168	154
Utah	18	23	24	19	30	27
Vermont	13	11	17	11	53	22
Virginia	26	30	51	36	45	44
Washington	15	17	25	20	20	21
West Virginia	39	45	60	43	31	39
Wisconsin	81	77	111	104	98	103
Wyoming	16	15	23	21	19	19
Alaska	1	2	2	1		1
Canada	1	1	1		1	2
China				2		
Cook Island				1		1
England				1		
Greece		1				
Guam	1					
Hawaii	3	4	5	3	4	4
India			1			
Japan	1	1	1	1		
Mexico						1
New Zealand				1	1	1
Porto Rico		3	3	2	2	16
Philippine Islands		4	4	6	6	8
Samoa		1	2			
Syria			1	1		
Total	2,136	2,470	3,305	3,114	3,684	3,719

NOTE.—The count includes only members who paid dues for the year.

Educational Research Service—The Educational Research Service was authorized in 1923 by vote of the Cleveland convention of the Department of Superintendence. It is conducted in cooperation with the Research Division of the National Education Association. Books, bulletins, circulars, and special tabulations which contain up-to-date information on school practice are sent to all subscribers. In addition, each subscriber is assured of individual assistance in response to requests for information. One of the important contributions to subscribers is the biennial study of school salaries made by the Research Division. The most recent tabulation sent to subscribers is one reporting city school expenditures in 283 cities for the school year 1928-29. A school research exchange has been developed for circulating information regarding research studies completed and in progress in city school systems. In general, the Educational Research Service acts as a clearing house of school information for its subscribers.

The service is maintained on a subscription basis, with an annual fee of $25. Although the service is aimed more directly to meet the needs of city school systems, the 271 subscribers include 7 state departments of education and 24 colleges and other educational institutions. The income from this service in its first year, 1924, was $525; for the year just closed it was $6,362. Three members of the headquarters staff devote their entire time to this service.

Permanent Research Fund—In recent years the Department of Superintendence has completed a number of important studies in education. Through the yearbooks, some of the best thinking in America has been brought to bear on problems which superintendents of schools must face. Several committees are now at work on studies of nation-wide significance. Not a single member of any of these committees receives a cent for his services. The leading school systems of the nation have contributed generously of time and material in promoting these great cooperative enterprises. Notwithstanding these contributions, the ordinary receipts of the Department of Superintendence are not sufficient to finance the research studies which superintendents of schools are demanding.

As a result of this situation, the Department of Superintendence, at its Boston convention, authorized the appointment of a committee to develop plans for more adequately financing educational research. The Cleveland convention again took action directing the committee to propose a method for "creating a fund that should yield an annual income sufficient to enable the Department to carry forward important studies in education on a nation-wide basis," and fixed the sum of one million dollars as the amount necessary for this purpose.

The members appointed on this committee were Randall J. Condon, Frank W. Ballou, Frank D. Boynton, Lamont F. Hodge, and Charles H. Judd. They undertook this job only at the earnest solicitation of the Executive Committee. Their plans were outlined in letters which have been sent to members of the Department of Superintendence and in their report at the Cleveland convention. Some delay was occasioned when a vacancy arose in the chairmanship of the committee due to the retirement of Superintendent Randall J. Condon from active school work. Dr. Condon had devoted much time and energy to this project. In October, President Frank Cody called together the remaining members of the committee and directed them to press forward energetically with a program for raising the million dollar research fund, in accordance with the official action taken by the Department of Superintendence and the Executive Committee.

When the proposed fund is available, the Department of Superintendence will be able to study more intensively problems of public school administration and annually to make those investigations which, in the words of the chairman of the committee at the Cleveland convention, "shall redound to the welfare of the schools of this country." The fund is under way. Subscriptions have been made by many members of the Department of Superintendence. Cash receipts for 1929 were as follows:

Randall J. Condon, Cincinnati, Ohio	$250.00
Frank D. Boynton, Ithaca, N. Y.	250.00
Parent Teacher Association of Yonkers, N. Y., by Lamont F. Hodge	50.00
Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago by Charles H. Judd	250.00
Lucius N. Littauer, Gloversville, N. Y., by Harry W. Langworthy	250.00
Kappa Phi Kappa Fraternity by Arthur D. Wright	50.00
Physical Education Class of 1929, State Normal School, Cortland, N. Y., by Harry DeW. DeGroat	50.00
W. C. Smith, Albany, N. Y.	50.00
D. B. Waldo, Kalamazoo, Mich.	50.00
Rochester, N. Y., Teachers Association by A. Laura McGregor	250.00
Commission on the Curriculum by E. C. Broome, chairman	171.24
Nicholas Bauer for principals and teachers of New Orleans, La.	250.00
Newport News, Va., High School by Joseph H. Saunders	86.43
City Board of School Commissioners of Charleston, S. C., by A. B. Rhett	50.00
Parent Teacher Associations of Newburgh, N. Y., by Snyder J. Gage	252.00
Total cash receips	$2,309.67
Transferred from regular fund, Department of Superintendence	5,000.00
Total cash assets	$7,309.67

Committee on Lay Relations—The Boston convention authorized the appointment of a standing committee of five members on the relation of the Department of Superintendence with lay organizations. The committee consists of M. G. Clark, superintendent of schools, Sioux City, Iowa, chairman; Charles S. Meek, superintendent of schools, Toledo, Ohio; Daniel J. Kelly, superintendent of schools, Binghamton, N. Y.; L. P. Benezet, superintendent of schools, Manchester, N. H.; and Albert S. Cook, state superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Md. This committee met at Detroit, December 2.

The committee voted to prepare and present at the Atlantic City convention, a printed report stating certain general principles concerning the relationship which the schools should have to the various interests and organizations which seek to secure the participation of the public schools in outside enterprises.

Requests for allied relationship from numerous organizations were considered. The committee decided that the Department of Superintendence was unable to provide suitable hotel accommodations and meeting halls in convention cities for any additional allied departments or organizations. The absence of too large a group of executives such as supervisors, principals, and specialists from a school system during the last week in February leaves the school under-staffed and constitutes a real menace, in case an emergency arises while so large a proportion of executive officers are at the convention. The report will suggest that school authorities should keep this situation in mind when determining the size of the delegation to be sent to the winter meeting from their school systems.

In conclusion—Year by year superintendents of schools are called upon to bear increasing burdens of responsibility. Modern conditions have rapidly forced the schools to revise their procedures and to undertake new duties of which no one dreamed a generation ago. The Department of Superintendence through its yearbooks, its research service, its conventions, and its other activities has sought to keep pace with changing conditions and unselfishly to assist in the solution of America's educational problems.

Respectfully submitted,

S. D. SHANKLAND,
Executive Secretary.

REPORT OF AUDITING COMMITTEE

WASHINGTON, D. C.
JANUARY 17, 1930.

Superintendent Frank Cody,
President, Department of Superintendence,
Detroit, Michigan.

DEAR SIR:

We, the undersigned committee, appointed to audit the accounts of the Department of Superintendence for the year 1929, report as follows:

1. All items of receipts and expenditures as shown by the books of the executive secretary, S. D. Shankland, the bank deposit records, and the vouchers for expenditures have been examined and audited. We find that the total regular receipts of the Department for the year were $48,005.57, the receipts of the permanent fund $2,309.67, which with the balance on hand January 1, 1929, of $13,232.39 makes a total of receipts for the year of $63,547.63. The total expenditures were $43,252.48, leaving a balance on hand January 1, 1930, of $20,295.15. Of this sum $12,985.48 is the balance in the general fund, and $7,309.67 in the permanent fund.

2. This audit covers the transactions of the calendar year 1929, and the receipts of the month of December, 1928, but not those of December, 1929. Under the Constitution of the Department, December receipts are not credited on the books of the National Education Association until January.

3. The committee is particularly pleased to report the excellent form in which the accounts of the Department are kept. These are in such shape as to make plain every item concerned with the year's audit. We are pleased to add our appreciation not only of the efficiency of the executive secretary and his clerical force, but also of the courtesy and helpfulness with which the committee has been received in this work. On account of the interlocking relationship between the Department of Superintendence and the National Education Association, the audit of the accounts of this Department makes it necessary to refer to the accounts of the National Education Association. Your committee found the same kind of care in the keeping of these accounts and the same kind of helpfulness from Mrs. Hixson and other officers of the National Education Association as were found in the Department of Superintendence.

Respectfully submitted,

LOUIS NUSBAUM.
W. A. DENNY.
S. E. WEBER.

THE CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS
THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

CONSTITUTION

Article I—Name

The name of this association shall be the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

Article II—Object

The object of this department shall be to promote the general educational welfare in the field of administrative education and supervision, to make constructive studies, to further the effort and increase the efficiency of persons engaged in education, to foster professional zeal, to advance educational aims and standards, to protect and advance the interests of school administration, and to establish and maintain helpful, friendly relationships.

Article III—Membership

SECTION 1. Membership in the Department of Superintendence shall consist of active, associate, and honorary.

SECTION 2. All persons shall be eligible to active membership who are members of the National Education Association and who are engaged in supervisory and administrative positions—namely, state, county, and city superintendents, and associate, assistant, and deputy state, county, and city superintendents, and supervisory and administrative officers in city and county school systems exercising the functions of associate, assistant, or deputy superintendents; all state and national officers of educational administration; the heads of teacher-training institutions, colleges, and universities having departments or colleges of education, the heads of these departments or colleges of education, and professors of school administration or supervision in these institutions.

SECTION 3. All members of the National Education Association, who are actively engaged in any phase of school work, may become associate members of this department by paying the regular membership fee, and shall be entitled to all the privileges of this department except the right to vote and hold office.

SECTION 4. All members of the National Education Association, who have been engaged in supervisory or administrative positions, as defined in Section 2 of this article, and who have retired from such service, may have the privilege of honorary membership in this department upon recommendation of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 5. The Executive Committee shall have power to pass upon the credentials of all applicants for membership.

Article IV—Officers

SECTION 1. The officers of this department shall be a president, a first vice-president (who shall be the retiring president), a second vice-president, an executive secretary, and four members of the Executive Committee who, with the other officers of this department, with the exception of the executive secretary, shall constitute the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2. The president and vice-presidents shall hold office for the period of one year from the date of election, including one full year's service in the promotion and operation of one meeting of the department.

SECTION 3. The executive secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee for an indefinite period.

SECTION 4. Members of the Executive Committee shall hold office for four years, one member retiring each year. At the first election the member receiving the largest number of votes shall serve for a term of four years and the others for three, two, and one years, respectively, according to the number of votes received.

Article V—Election of Officers

SECTION 1. The procedure for the election of officers shall be as follows: Nominations shall be made from the floor on the morning of the second day's session at a time previously agreed upon by the Executive Committee, and announced in the printed program of the meeting.

SECTION 2. *Method of balloting*—The tickets issued by the secretary of the department to the members shall be provided with a detachable stub, to be used as a ballot.

Two places for balloting shall be provided, one at the secretary's headquarters, the other at the entrance to the auditorium in which the general sessions are held.

The ballot-boxes shall be open for voting from 11 A. M. until 6 P. M. on the third day of the meeting.

Those candidates receiving the highest number of votes for the respective offices shall be considered the choice of the department, and declared elected.

The entire procedure of balloting shall be in charge of the Executive Committee and secretary.

SECTION 3. *Announcement of the result of balloting*—At the last regular business meeting, the president shall call for the report of the secretary, announcing the result of the ballot cast for the several officers of the department. In case of a tie vote, the Executive Committee shall cast lots to determine the successful candidate.

Article VI—Appointive Committees

The appointive committees of this department shall consist of a Resolutions Committee, an Audit Committee, and such other committees as may be authorized by the department from time to time.

Article VII—Annual Meeting

The annual meeting of this department shall be held on the fourth Monday in February, and the three succeeding days.

Article VIII—Amendments

This Constitution may be altered or amended at any annual meeting by two-thirds vote of the active members present, the proposed amendment having been submitted in writing at a previous regular business meeting.

BYLAWS

Article I—Duties of Officers

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of the president to preside at all meetings and in conjunction with the Executive Committee to prepare programs for the annual meeting of the department; to appoint all committees not otherwise provided for. He shall be chairman and a member of the Executive Committee, and shall call meetings of this committee whenever he deems it necessary, or whenever he is requested so to do by a majority of the members of the committee. He shall perform all other duties appertaining to his office.

SECTION 2. In the absence of the president, the vice-presidents shall preside in turn. In case of vacancy in the office of president, the second vice-president shall at once succeed to the office of president.

SECTION 3. The executive secretary shall keep a complete and accurate record of the proceedings of all meetings of the department and all meetings of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the department, as provided by the Constitution and Bylaws, and in all matters not definitely prescribed therein be under the direction of the Executive Committee, and in the absence of direction by the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the president. He shall receive all moneys due the department and transmit them monthly to the secretary of the National Education Association; shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Executive Committee or by the president in the interval between meetings of the Executive Committee. He shall have his records present at all meetings of the department and Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members of the department and shall revise said list annually. He shall be secretary of the Executive Committee and custodian of all property of the department. He shall give such bond as may be required by the Executive Committee. He shall submit an annual report to the Executive Committee at each annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office he shall turn over to his successor in office all money, books, and property of the department. He shall serve during the pleasure of the Executive Committee.

Article II—Duties of Committees

SECTION 1. The Executive Committee shall assist the president in arranging the annual program, and in arranging for the place of the annual meeting. It shall select an executive secretary and fix his salary. The Executive Committee shall submit an annual report at one of the business sessions of the department, shall recommend to the department the appointment of special committees for investigation and research. It shall recommend the amount of money to be expended in such investigations, but in no case shall it incur debt. It shall decide what sections and departments of the National Education Association may be affiliated with this department.

SECTION 2. The Resolutions and Audit Committees shall be appointed by the newly elected president immediately upon his election and shall make their report at the next annual meeting succeeding their appointment.

Article III—Dues

The dues of this department shall be $5 per year for both active and associate members, and shall be paid annually to the executive secretary. In lieu of said annual dues, a six-year membership shall be issued by the executive secretary to any active or associate member upon the payment of $25 in advance.

Article IV—Vacancies

All vacancies occurring in any office other than that of president shall be filled by the Executive Committee.

Article V—Rules of Order

Roberts' Rules of Order shall govern in all business meetings of this department.

Article VI—Amendments

These Bylaws may be amended at any regular business meeting of this department by a majority vote of the members present, the amendment having been submitted in writing at a previous regular business meeting.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

The National Association of School Superintendents was organized at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, in 1865. This association became the Department of School Superintendence of the National Educational Association in 1870. In 1907 the name was changed to the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS, 1865-1870

1865—HARRISBURG, PA. (Organization) August.
Birdsey Grant Northrop, Chairman.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.

1866—WASHINGTON, D. C., February.
INDIANAPOLIS, IND., August.
Birdsey Grant Northrop, President.
Charles R. Coburn, Vice-president.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.

1867—No Meeting.

1868—NASHVILLE, TENN., August.
Emerson E. White, President.
Daniel Stevenson, Vice-president.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.

1869—TRENTON, N. J., August.
J. W. Bulkley, President.
Emerson E. White, Vice-president.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.

1870—WASHINGTON, D. C., March.
James P. Wickersham, President.
S. S. Ashley, Vice-president.
W. R. Creery, Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1871-1906

1871—ST. LOUIS, MO., August.
W. D. Henkle, President.
W. M. Colby, Vice-president.
Warren Johnson, Secretary.

1872—BOSTON, MASS., August.
John Hancock, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.

1873—ELMIRA, N. Y., August.
William T. Harris, President.
John W. Page, Vice-president.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.

1874—WASHINGTON, D. C., January.
DETROIT, MICH., August.
J. H. Binford, President.
Allen Armstrong, Secretary.

1875—WASHINGTON, D. C., January.
MINNEAPOLIS, MINN, August.
J. Ormond Wilson, President.
A. Abernethy, Vice-president.
R. W. Stevenson, Secretary.

1876—BALTIMORE, MD., July.
Charles S. Smart, President.
A. Pickett, Vice-president.
Horace S. Tarbell, Secretary.

1877—WASHINGTON, D. C., March.
LOUISVILLE, KY., August.
WASHINGTON, D. C., December.
Charles S. Smart, President.
Horace S. Tarbell, Secretary.

1878—No Meeting.

1879—WASHINGTON, D. C., February.
PHILADELPHIA, PA., July.
James P. Wickersham, President.
James H. Smart, Vice-president.
R. W. Stevenson, Secretary.

1880—WASHINGTON, D. C., February.
CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y., July.
M. A. Newell, President.
N. A. Calkins, Vice-president.
S. A. Baer, Secretary.

1881—NEW YORK, N. Y., February.
ATLANTA, GA., July.
A. P. Marble, President.
N. A. Calkins, Vice-president.
Samuel Findley, Secretary.

1882—WASHINGTON, D. C., March.
SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July.
W. H. Ruffner, President.
N. A. Calkins, Vice-president.
Henry S. Jones, Secretary.

1883—WASHINGTON, D. C., February.
SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July.
N. A. Calkins, President.
Horace S. Tarbell, Vice-president.
Henry S. Jones, Secretary.

1884—WASHINGTON, D. C., February.
MADISON, WIS., July.
B. L. Butcher, President.
D. F. DeWolf, Vice-president.
Henry R. Sanford, Secretary.

1885—NEW ORLEANS, LA., February.
SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July.
Leroy D. Brown, President.
W. O. Rogers, Secretary.

1886—WASHINGTON, D. C., February.
TOPEKA, KANS., July.
Warren Easton, President.
A. P. Stone, Vice-president.
Charles C. Davidson, Secretary.

1887—WASHINGTON, D. C., March.
CHICAGO, ILL., July.
Charles S. Young, President.
N. C. Dougherty, Vice-president.
Charles C. Davidson, Secretary.

1888—WASHINGTON, D. C., February.
SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF., July.
N. C. Dougherty, President.
Henry A. Wise, Vice-president.
W. R. Thigpen, Secretary.

1889—WASHINGTON, D. C., Feb.-March.
NASHVILLE, TENN., July.
Fred M. Campbell, President.
Charles C. Davidson, Vice-president.
W. R. Thigpen, Secretary.

1890—NEW YORK, N. Y., February.
Andrew S. Draper, President.
J. A. B. Lovett, Vice-president.
L. W. Day, Secretary.

1891—PHILADELPHIA, PA., February.
Andrew S. Draper, President.
J. A. B. Lovett, Vice-president.
L. W. Day, Secretary.

1892—BROOKLYN, N. Y., February.
Henry Sabin, President.
Virgil G. Curtis, Vice-president.
L. W. Day, Secretary.

1893—BOSTON, MASS, February.
Edward Brooks, President.
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Ackley, Clarence E., A. B. '10, A. M. '13, Oberlin Col. Address: P. O. Box 812, Birmingham, Ala.

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Alger, John L., A. B. '90, A. M. '95, Brown Univ.; Ed. D. '21, R. I. State Col.; Pres., R. I. Col. of Educ., Providence, R. I., since 1908.

Allan, Harold A., A. B. '06, Bates Col.; Dir., Business Div., Natl. Educ. Assn., 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C., since 1923.

Allbaugh, Edgar B., Diploma '01, State Tchrs. Col., Emporia, Kansas; Supt. of Sch., 521 W. Eighth, Concordia, Kansas, since 1929.

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Ayer, J. Warren, A. B. ’07, Otterbein Col.; M. A. ’23, Stanford Univ.; Dist. Supt. and H. S. Prin., Los Gatos Union H. S. Dist., Route 1, Box 215, Los Gatos, Calif., since 1922.

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Bailey, Norman D., A. B. '28, Boston Univ.; Supt. of Sch., North Kingstown, R. I., since 1927. Address: Wickford, R. I.

Bair, Carl M., Ph. B. '09, Grinnell Col.; Supt. of Sch., 650 Fourth Ave., Berlin, N. H., since 1921.

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Baish, Henry H., A. B. '01, A. M. '03, Lebanon Valley Col.; Secy., Pa. Tchrs. Retirement System, 2615 N. Second, Harrisburg, Pa., since 1918.

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Baker, B. B., Supt. of Sch., 5114 Overlook Pl., Fairfield, Ala.

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Baker, Ira William, Prin., Harding Jr. H. S., 33rd and Shartell, Oklahoma City, Okla.

Baker, William Elwood, A. B. '16, A. M. '20, Colo. State Tchrs. Col.; Supt. of Sch., 516 Ensign, Fort Morgan, Colo., since 1924.

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Bole, Lyman W., B. S. '19, Cornell Univ.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., Bradford, Vt., since 1927.

Bolin, Clarence G., A. B. '25, Hendrix Col.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Murfreesboro, Ark., since 1925.

Bonar, Hugh S., B. Accts. '16, B. A. '18, Mt. Morris Col.; M. A. '24, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Manitowoc, Wis., since 1927.

Bonar, John Stanley, Diploma '13, State Normal Sch., West Liberty, W. Va.; B. S. in Ed. '26, Ohio Univ.; Pres., State Normal Sch., West Liberty, W. Va., since 1926.

Bond, George Glenn, A. M. '95, Univ. of Ga.; Supt. of Sch., City Hall, Athens, Ga., since 1891.

Bond, W. F., A. B. '02, Peabody Col.; State Supt. of Educ., Jackson, Miss., since 1916.

Bonnett, Sister Jeanne Marie, A. B. '17, A. M. '19, Univ. of Minn.; Pd. D. '25, Univ. of Louvain; Prof. of Educ., College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, Minn., since 1919.

Booker, W. R., A. B. '16, A. M. '26, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 724 Peck, Muskegon Hgts., Mich., since 1928.

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Bowden, A. O., A. B. '08, A. M. '10, Univ. of Ky.; A. M. '12, Harvard Univ.; Ph. D. '28, Columbia Univ.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., Silver City, N. Mex., since 1922.

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Cobb, Charles R., A. B. '03, Greenville Col., Greenville, Ill.; A. B. '04, A. M. '05, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Bessemer, Mich., since 1912.

Cobb, Thomas Howell, M. A. '26, Illinois; Supt. of Sch., Urbana, Ill., since 1929.

Coblentz, C. R., Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Eaton, Ohio, since 1923.

Coburn, William G., A. B. '90, Univ. of Mich.; LL. D. '23, Olivet Col.; Supt. of Sch., Battle Creek, Mich., since 1895.

Cochran, J. Chester, B. S. '29, Sul Ross State Tchrs. Col., Alpine, Texas; Supt. of Sch., Mexia, Texas, since 1929.

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Cody, Frank, Pd. M. '12, Mich. State Normal Col.; M. A. '24, Univ. of Mich.; Pres., Dept. of Superintendence, 1929-30; Supt. of Sch., 1354 Broadway, Detroit, Mich., since 1919.

Coffey, Wilford L., A. B. '22, Mich. State Normal Col.; M. A. '24, Ph. D. '29, Univ. of Mich.; Dean, Col. of the City of Detroit, 3455 Chicago Blvd., Detroit, Mich., since 1928.

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Colahan, Wayne J., Prin., H. S., Woodstock, Ill.

Colburn, Jessie B., Prin., Jr. H. S. 96, Manhattan, 1532 York Ave., New York, N. Y., since 1921.

Cole, Albert S., A. B. '96, Colby Col.; Supt. of Sch., Grafton, Mass., since 1921.

Cole, C. E., B. S. '18, Muhlenberg Col.; A. M. '21, Columbia Univ.; Supt., Muhlenberg Twp. Sch., Temple, Pa., since 1925.

Cole, Robert D., A. B. and A. M. '12, Bowdoin Col.; Ph. D. '27, Univ. of Pa.; Prof. of Sec. Educ., Univ. of N. Dak., University Sta., Grand Forks, N. Dak., since 1926.

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Collier, Price L., B. S. in Ed. '17, A. M. '27, Univ. of Mo.; Supt. of Sch., Richmond, Mo., since 1922.

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Colton, Harold J., Diploma '13, State Tchrs. Col., Slippery Rock, Pa.; A. B. '24, Thiel Col.; A. M. '27, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Bessemer, Pa., since 1924.

Combs, Morgan LaFayette, A. B. '17, Univ. of Richmond; A. M. '22, Univ. of Chicago; Ed. M. '26, Ed. D. '27, Harvard Univ.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., Fredericksburg, Va., since 1928.

Compton, Charles Vernon, B. A. '09, Emory and Henry Col.; M. A. '27, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., McCamey, Texas.

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Cook, Albert S., A. B. '95, A. M. '06, Princeton Univ.; Litt. D. '23, Western Md. Col.; Litt. D. '23, St. John's Col., Annapolis, Md.; Litt. D. '24, Univ. of Md.; State Supt. of Sch., Towson, Md., since 1920.

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Cook, Jason O., A. B. '06, A. M. '07, Brown Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Town Hall, Amherst, Mass., since 1920.

Cook, Paul M., A. B. '18, Central Wesleyan Col.; M. A. '27, Univ. of Chicago; Exec. Secy., Phi Delta Kappa, Republic Bldg., State and Adams Sts., Chicago, Ill., since 1928.

Cook, R. C., Summit, Miss.

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Cook, William Cassius, Diploma '07 and '22, A. B. '27, Concord State Normal Sch., Athens, W. Va.; State Supt. of Free Sch., Charleston, W. Va., since 1929.

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Coxe, Charles, A. B., Ph. B. '05, Lafayette Univ.; A. M. '12, Harvard Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Lewistown, Pa.

Coxe, Warren W., B. Sc. '11, Dakota Wesleyan Univ.; Ph. D. '23, Ohio State Univ.; Dir., Educ. Research Div., State Educ. Dept., Albany, N. Y., since 1929.

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Craig, Gerald S., A. M. '17, Ph. D. '27, Columbia Univ.; Asst. Prof. of Natural Science, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y., since 1924.

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Crampton, E. E., B. S. '98, Olivet Col.; A. M. '27, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., 416 S. Pearl, Belding, Mich., since 1925.

Crandall, W. G., B. S. '20, Cornell Univ.; Chief, Div. of Educ., Clemson Agrl. Col., Clemson College, S. C., since 1922.

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Crane, Arthur Griswold, B. A., M. A., Carleton Col.; Ph. D., Columbia Univ.; Pres., Univ. of Wyo., Laramie, Wyo., since 1922.

Crane, R. L., Jr., Supt. of Hillsborough Sch. Dist., 434 Wisnom Ave., San Mateo, Calif., since 1926.

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Crawford, C. C., Supt. of Sch., Shepherd, Mich.

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Cromwell, P. R., Life License '14, A. B. '17, Ind. State Normal Sch.; A. M. '24, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Carlisle, Ind., since 1926.

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Cummings, L. O., A. B. '10, A. M. '11, Ed. D. '21, Harvard Univ.; Assoc. Prof. of Educ., Sch. of Educ., Harvard Univ., Cambridge, Mass., since 1921.

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Cushing, J. Stearns, Supt. of Sch., Town Hall, Middleboro, Mass., since 1927.

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Davis, T. S., Co. Supt. of Sch., Hollidaysburg, Pa., since 1902.

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Ellenberger, Charles W., B. S. '28, Juniata Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Brookville, Pa., since 1929.

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Ellis, H. A., A. B. '14, Wash. State Col.; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Colfax, Wash., since 1924.

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Ellis, Radford Terrell, B. A. '15, Texas Christian Univ.; Exec. Secy., Texas State Tchrs. Assn., 708 N. P. Anderson Bldg., Fort Worth, Texas, since 1916.

Ellis, William Daniel, A. M. '08, Randolph-Macon Col.; M. A. '22, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prin., Richmond Normal Sch., Richmond, Va., since 1920.

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Hunt, Charles W., A. B. '04, Brown Univ.; A. M. '10, Ph. D. '22, Columbia Univ.; Dean, Sch. of Educ., Western Reserve Univ., Stearns Rd. and E. 109th St., Cleveland, Ohio, since 1924.

Hunt, Harry A., A. B. '01, Col. of William and Mary; Supt. of Sch., Armistead Bldg., Portsmouth, Va., since 1909.

Hunt, Lyman C., A. B. '12, Univ. of Vt.; Supt. of Sch., Burlington, Vt., since 1922.

Hunt, R. C., B. S. '18, Kansas State Tchrs. Col.; Supt. of Sch., Fredonia, Kansas, since 1925.

Hunt, R. L., A. B. '13, William Jewell Col.; A. M. '27, Colo. State Tchrs. Col.; Supt. of Sch., Madison, S. Dak., since 1929.

Hunter, Fred M., A. B. '05, Univ. of Nebr.; A. M. '19, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Ed. D, '24, Univ. of Calif.; Pres., Natl. Educ. Assn., 1920-21; Chancellor, Univ. of Denver, Denver, Colo., since 1928.

Hunter, Hiram T., A. B. '12, Wake Forest Col.; M. A. '17, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Ed. M. '22, Harvard Univ.; Pres., Western Carolina Tchrs. Col., Cullowhee, N. C., since 1923.

Hunter, Joseph Symmes, B. A. '01, Ohio State Univ.; M. A. '24, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Asst. Co. Supt. of Sch., 445 Ross Ave., Hamilton, Ohio, since 1914.

Hurst, Albert S., B. A. '99, Univ. of Toronto; M. A. '04, Ph. D. '05, Yale Univ.; Dean, Tchrs. Col., Syracuse Univ., Syracuse, N. Y., since 1920.

Hurst, James, Co. Supt. of Sch., 148 Granby St., Norfolk, Va.

Husted, Milton Franklin, B. S. '07, M. A. '10, M. Ped. '12, N. Y. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Municipal Bldg., North Bergen, N. J., since 1906.

Hutchinson, Harvey O., Pd. D. '20, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Elmira, N. Y., since 1921.

Hutchinson, Sherburn C., A. B. '92, A. M. '93, Syracuse; Supt. of Sch., Montpelier, Vt., since 1911.

Hutchinson, N. F., A. B. '11, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Salem, Ind., since 1921.

Hutt, W. Leon, B. A. '14, Syracuse Univ.; M. A. '24, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 10 Barton Ave., Hoosick Falls, N. Y., since 1925.

Hutto, Mrs. Elizabeth D., Co. Supt. of Educ., Court House, Darlington, S. C., since 1925.

Hyer, F. S., A. B. '11, Ripon Col.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., Whitewater, Wis., since 1919.

Hyndman, R. W., A. B. '15, Ind. State Normal; A. M. '21, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 26 W. Elm St., Canton, Ill., since 1923.

Ignatius, Mother M., A. M. '15, Col. of New Rochelle; Dean, Col. of New Rochelle, New Rochelle, N. Y., since 1918.

Igo, Henry J., B. S. '21, M. S. '29, Colo. Agrl. Col.; Supt. of Sch., Simla, Colo., since 1929.

Iler, Ernest, B. S. '14, M. A. '27, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Downers Grove, Ill., since 1923.

Ingram, I. S., Prin., Fourth Dist. Agrl. and Mech. Sch., Carrollton, Ga.

Ingram, Katherine P., A. B. '21, Randolph-Macon Woman's Col.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Bolivar, Tenn., since 1922.

Inlow, H. E., A. B., Pacific Univ.; LL. B., Univ. of Oregon; Eastern Oregon Normal Sch., La Grande, Oregon.

Inscoe, L. S., B. A. '15, Wake Forest Col.; M. A. '28, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Nashville, N. C., since 1919.

Insley, J. W., Co. Supt. of Sch., 116 Defiance, Findlay, Ohio.

Ireland, E. Ward, B. S. '08, M. A. '12, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 817 Wilcoxson Ave., Stratford, Conn., since 1926.

Ireland, Everett W., B. S. '11, Tufts Col.; Supt. of Sch., Somerville, Mass., since 1928.

Ireland, J. W., A. B. '02, A. M. '03, Centre Col.; A. M. '28, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 204 Shelby St., Frankfort, Ky., since 1918.

Irish, Arthur, A. B. '09, Bates Col.; A. M. '29, Columbia Univ.; Union Supt. of Sch., Rangeley, Maine, since 1927.

Irons, Robert B., A. B. '07, Wabash Col.; Supt. of Sch., Winona, Minn., since 1920.

Irvine, Paul, A. B. '15, Willamette Univ.; M. A. '24, Ph. D. '28, New York Univ.; Assoc. Prof. of Educ. and Dir. of Tchr. Tr., Ala. Polytechnic Inst., Auburn, Ala., since 1928.

Irving, Helen A., Co. Supt. of Sch., Rawlins, Wyo., since 1921.

Irwin, W. W., M. E. '96, State Normal Sch., Slippery Rock, Pa.; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Farrell, Pa., since 1926.

Isanogle, Alvey M., A. B. '98, St. Johns Col.; A. M. '24, Johns Hopkins Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Western Md. Col., Westminster, Md., since 1920.

Isle, Walter W., A. B. '15, Univ. of Okla.; A. M. '19, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Box 1446, Ponca City, Okla.

Ivy, Horace M., A. B. '03, A. M. '04, Central Col., Mo.; Ph. D. '22, Peabody Col.; Supt. of Sch., City Hall, Meridian, Miss., since 1923.

Jack, William B., A. B. '00, Colby Col.; Supt. of Sch., 29 Eastern Promenade, Portland, Maine, since 1922.

Jackman, Harold E., Diploma '99, State Normal Sch., Farmington, Maine; Union Supt. of Sch., Hanover, Mass., since 1928.

Jackson, F. S., M. E. P. '98, State Tchrs. Col., Mansfield, Pa.; Ph. B. '11, Grove City Col.; Supt. of Sch., Jefferson St. Bldg., Punxsutawney, Pa., since 1908.

Jackson, F. W., A. B. '07, Bates Col.; Supt. of Sch., Madison, N. H., since 1921.

Jackson, Halliday R., A. B. '04, Swarthmore Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Ventnor City, N. J., since 1915.

Jackson, J. A., A. B. '07, Mt. Union Col.; Supt. of Sch., Clarksburg, W. Va., since 1916.

Jackson, Lambert L., Ph. D. '06, Columbia Univ.; D. Pd. '06, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; First Asst. Supt. of Sch., City Hall, Newark, N. J., since 1928.

Jacob, Peyton, 509 Adams St., Macon, Ga.

Jacob, Samuel Sprigg, Jr., B. S. '95, W. Va. Univ.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., 111 Oak Ave., Oak Park, Wheeling, W. Va., since 1912.

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Jacobs, Walter Ballou, A. B. '82, A. M. '85, Brown Univ.; Prof. of Educ. and Dir. of Univ. Extension, Brown Univ., 310 Olney St., Providence, R. I.

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Jaggard, Guy H., M. S., Univ. of Kansas; Supt. of Sch., Concordia, Kansas, since 1927.

Jaggers, R. E., A. B. '25, A. M. '26, Univ. of Ky.; State Supvr. of Rural Sch., State Dept. of Educ., Frankfort, Ky.

Jahr, Charles A., Ph. B. '07, Univ. of Wis.; Supt. of Sch., Elkhorn, Wis., since 1916.

James, Haddon W., Ph. D. '23, State Univ. of Iowa; Dir., Sch. of Educ., Ala. Col., Montevallo, Ala., since 1923.

James, William Alonzo, B. S. '94, M. A. '95, Univ. of Texas; Prin., Ball High Sch., Galveston, Texas, since 1905.

Jammer, George F., B. S. '19, Bucknell Univ.; M. A. '26, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Wellsville, N. Y., since 1926.

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Janes, Edward A., A. B. '12, Cornell Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Union 48, Wentworth, N. H., since 1927.

Janes, Marvin E., Diploma '00, State Normal Sch., Geneseo, N. Y.; Union Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., South Deerfield, Mass., since 1927.

Jantzen, Daniel F., A. B. '21, Univ. of Ariz.; Supt. of Sch., Peoria, Ariz., since 1926.

Jarman, Joseph L., LL. D. '06, Hampden-Sidney Col.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., Farmville, Va., since 1902.

Jean, Sally Lucas, A. M. '23, Bates Col.; Consultant, Health Educ., 200 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y., since 1924.

Jeffers, Fred A., Diploma '91, M. Pd. '06, State Normal Col., Ypsilanti, Mich.; M. A. '26, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Twp. Sch., Painesdale, Mich., since 1891.

Jeffords, H. Morton, A. B. '14, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Wallingford, Conn., since 1925.

Jenkins, David S., A. B. '29, St. Johns Col.; Asst. Co. Supt. of Sch., State Circle, Annapolis, Md., since 1927.

Jenkins, F. F., B. A. '18, Col. of William and Mary; Div. Supt. of Sch., Franklin, Va., since 1923.

Jenner, G. Levant, Supt. of Sch., Bay City, Mich.

Jennings, Harold M., A. B. '13, A. M. '15, Cornell Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Mount Kisco, N. Y., since 1920.

Jensen, A. S., A. B. '19, A. M. '23, Ph. D. '27, Univ. of Wash.; Head, Dept. of Educ., Oregon State Normal Sch., Monmouth, Oregon, since 1927.

Jensen, D. C., Supt., Jordan Dist. Sch., Sandy, Utah.

Jensen, Frank A., A. B. '06, Mich. State Tchrs. Col.; M. A. '14, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Rockford, Ill., since 1923.

Jensen, George Charles, B. S. '11, M. S. '12, Univ. of Calif.; Prin., Sr. H. S., 2732 Fifth Ave., Sacramento, Calif., since 1927.

Jerome, Jerry Thomas, Co. Supt. of Sch., Goldsboro, N. C.

Jessup, Andrew S., A. B. '11, Ind. Univ.; M. A. '26, Univ. of Colo.; Supt. of Sch., Cheyenne, Wyo., since 1918.

Jessup, Walter Albert, A. B. '03, Earlham Col.; M. A. '08, Hanover Col.; Ph. D. '11, Columbia Univ.; LL. D. '22, Univ. of Wis.; LL. D. '28, Univ. of Mo.; LL. D. '28, Ind. Univ.; Pres., State Univ. of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, since 1916.

Job, Leonard B., M. A. '19, Ind. Univ.; Ph. D. '26, Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Ohio Univ., Athens, Ohio, since 1926.

Jobe, A. W., Co. Supt. of Sch., Clarksville, Tenn.

Johns, Charles L., A. B. '08, Northwestern Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 2880 E. Irvington, Huntington Park, Calif., since 1928

Johnson, A. P., Supt. of Sch., 995 S. Myrtle Ave., Kankakee, Ill., since 1921.

Johnson, Alfred H., 156 Bryant St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Johnson, Antone, B. A. '16, Cornell; Supt. of Sch., Emmetsburg, Iowa, since 1922.

Johnson, Bert E., B. A. '15, Univ. of N. Dak.; Supt. of Sch., Madison, S. Dak., since 1923.

Johnson, C. W., Co. Supt. of Educ., Dothan, Ala., since 1920.

Johnson, C. W., B. S. in Ed. '18, Univ. of Cincinnati; M. A. '29, Ohio State Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Norwood, Ohio, since 1923.

Johnson, Frank Clinton, A. B. '97, Dartmouth Col.; M. A. '06, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 10 High St., Ayer, Mass., since 1909.

Johnson, G. L. H., A. B. and M. A. '08, Col. of William and Mary; Supt. of Sch., Municipal Bldg., Danville, Va., since 1925.

Johnson, Ira S., B. S. '18, S. Dak. State Col.; M. A. '28, Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Milton, Fla.

Johnson, James G., B. A. '97, Milligan Col.; M. A. '06, Ph. D. '09, Univ. of Va.; Supt. of Sch., 1005 Wertland St., Charlottesville, Va., since 1909.

Johnson, L. A., Co. Supt. of Sch., 20 Holly St., Cranford, N. J.

Johnson, L. W., B. S. '24, North Texas State Tchrs. Col., Denton, Texas; M. A. '29, Univ. of Colo.; Supt. of Sch., Stamford, Texas, since 1928.

Johnson, Laurence C., B. S. '10, Ph. D. '16, Univ. of Mich.; Supvg. Prin. of Consol. Sch., Orchard Park, N. Y., since 1927.

Johnson, M. K., A. B. '13, Univ. of Ga.; Co. Supt. of Educ., Union Springs, Ala., since 1927.

Johnson, Paul H., 205 Washington Ave., Muskegon, Mich.

Johnson, Ralph W., B. S. '11, Franklin Col. of Ind.; M. A. '18, Columbia Univ.; Prin., Sr. H. S., Dubuque, Iowa, since 1926.

Johnson, S. Taylor, A. B. '88, Stanford Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 36 Stevens St., Oceanside, N. Y., since 1917.

Johnson, Walter C., P. O. Box 1064, Dallas, Texas.

Johnston, L. X., B. S. '24, State Normal Sch., Kent, Ohio; Asst. Co. Supt. of Sch., Lisbon, Ohio, since 1929.

Johnston, Ruth M., A. B. '02, Vassar Col.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., Port Leyden, N. Y., since 1912.

Johnston, T. K., A. B. '06, Grove City Col.; Supt. of Sch., Hamilton Bldg., McKees Rocks, Pa., since 1911.

Johnston, W. D., A. B. '12, Adrian Col.; Supt. of Sch., Weirton, W. Va., since 1917.

Jolly, Thomas C., Jr., B. S. '17, Univ. of S. C.; Supt. of Sch., Union, S. C., since 1924.

Jones, Arthur J., A. B. '93, Grinnell Col.; Ph. D. '07, Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Secondary Educ., Sch. of Educ., Univ. of Pa., Philadelphia, Pa., since 1915.

Jones, Burr F., A. B. '07, Colby Col.; A. M. '12, Harvard Univ.; State Supvr. of Elem. Educ., 212 State House, Boston, Mass., since 1917.

Jones, Burton Robert, B. S. '18, Drake Univ.; M. A. '28, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Spencer, Iowa, since 1928.

Jones, C. Edward, Pd. B. '04, Pd. M. '05, N. Y. State Col. for Tchrs.; B. S. '07, M. A. '08, Ph. D. '11, New York Univ.; Supt. of Sch., City Hall, Albany, N. Y., since 1912.

Jones, Evan E., A. B. '16, Hamilton; M. A. '25, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Mechanicville, N. Y., since 1922.

Jones, Frank O., A. B. '97, Brown; A. M. '07, Yale Univ.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., 865 Tower Ave., Hartford, Conn., since 1908.

Jones, Frank W., Supt. of Sch., Anamosa, Iowa.

Jones, G. B., B. S. '14, Ottawa Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Clarkdale, Ariz., since 1926.

Jones, H. S., B. A. '06, Bucknell Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Plymouth, Pa., since 1926.

Jones, H. V., A. B. '12, Park Col.; M. A. '26, Univ. of Colo.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., Sutherland, Nebr., since 1924.

Jones, H. W., B. S. '09, Cornell Col.; M. A. '22, Univ. of Calif.; Supt. of Sch., 800 Magnolia Ave., Piedmont, Calif., since 1921.

Jones, M. G., A. B. '11, Univ. of Mich.; A. M. '29, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prin., Union H. S., Huntington Beach, Calif., since 1919.

Jones, Olive M., Pres., Natl. Educ. Assn., 1923-24; Dir., Calvary House, 61 Gramercy Park, N., New York, N. Y.

Jones, Perry A., A. B. '10, Bethany Col.; Prin., Sharon H. S., Sharon, Pa., 1914-1918 and since 1922.

Jones, R. L., Supt. of Sch., Administration Bldg., 317 Poplar Ave., Memphis, Tenn.

Jones, Robinson G., A. B. '94, Ohio Northern Univ.; A. B., M. A. '12, Columbia; D. Ped. '21, Ohio Northern Univ.; Pres., Dept. of Superintendence, 1921-22; Supt. of Sch., Cleveland, Ohio, since 1919.

Jones, T. J., B. L. '96, Univ. of Wis.; Supt. of Sch., 621 71st Ave., West Allis, Wis., since 1907.

Jones, Thomas E., A. B. '12, Earlham Col.; B. D. '15, Hartford Theological Seminary; M. A. '17, Ph. D. '26, Columbia Univ.; Pres., Fisk Univ., Nashville, Tenn., since 1926.

Jones, Walter P., Supt. of Sch., Macon, Ga.

Jordan, Dana S., A. B. '09, Bates Col.; Supt. of Sch., Lisbon, N. H., since 1924.

Jordan, R. H., B. A. '93, M. A. '13, Yale Univ.; Ph. D. '19, Univ. of Minn.; Prof. of Educ. and Dir. Summer Session, Cornell Univ., 252 Goldwin Smith Hall, Ithaca, N. Y., since 1921.

Jordan, Richard, B. A. '10, Univ. of Ga.; Prin., Martin H. S., Coushatta, La., since 1928.

Jordan, Roy Vail, Supt. of Sch., 417 E. Broadway, Centralia, Ill.

Joseph, Edna, Elem. Supvr., Sr. H. S., Springfield, Ohio.

Joy, Clarence L., A. B. '99, Dartmouth Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Proctor, Vt., since 1926.

Judd, Charles Hubbard, A. B. '94, Wesleyan Univ.; Ph. D. '96, Leipzig Univ.; Dir., Sch. of Educ., Univ. of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., since 1909.

Judd, Zebulon, Ph. B. '03, Univ. of N. C.; A. M. '14, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dean, Sch. of Educ. and Dir. of Summer Session, Ala. Polytechnic Inst., Auburn, Ala., since 1914.

Judkins, Mrs. Eva Austin, Bd. of Educ., Glens Falls, N. Y.

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Kadesch, J. Stevens, A. B. '10, Clark Univ.; Headmaster, Medford H. S., Medford, Mass., since 1921.

Kaemmerlen, John T., A. B. '16, A. M. '17, N. Y. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 129 William St., Catskill, N. Y.

Kalp, William Lawrence, A. B. '03, Bucknell Univ.; A. M. '26, Columbia Univ.; Prin., Jr. H. S., Long Branch, N. J., since 1923.

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Katterjohn, Henry, M. A. '18, Wash. Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Elmhurst Col., 176 Margaret Pl., Elmhurst, Ill., since 1922.

Kaye, Orin W., A. B. '20, Olivet Col.; Supt. of Sch., Paw Paw, Mich., since 1913.

Kays, V. C., Diploma '02, Northern Ill. State Tchrs. Col.; B. A. '06, Univ. of Ill.; B. S. A. '07, M. S. A. '08, N. Mex. Col. of Agr. and Mech. Arts; Pres., Agrl. and Mech. Col., Jonesboro, Ark., since 1910.

Kealey, Daniel S., A. B. '14, LL. B. '17, Fordham Univ.; '18, Stevens Marine Eng. Sch.; LL. D., Gonzaga; Supt. of Sch., Hoboken, N. J., since 1922.

Keating, John Francis, A. B. '92, Ohio Wesleyan Univ.; M. A. '06, D. L. '14, Univ. of Denver; Ed. D. '27, Univ. of Colo.; Supt. of Sch., Pueblo, Colo., since 1896.

Keator, Maud, B. A. '14, M. A. '17, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir., Special Educ. and Stand., State Bd. of Educ., Capitol, Hartford, Conn., since 1922.

Keboch, F. D., M. Pd. '07, State Normal Sch., Millersville, Pa.; A. B. '14, Lebanon Valley Col.; A. M. '25, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Supt. of Sch., 109 Emerson Ave., Aspinwall (Pittsburgh), Pa., since 1917.

Kee, Edwards W., B. A., Univ. of Texas; Supt., Gonzales Ind. Sch. Dist., Gonzales, Texas, since 1924.

Keefauver, L. C., A. B. '15, A. M. '24, Gettysburg Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Gettysburg, Pa., since 1926.

Keeler, L. W., Ph. B. '00, A. M. '10, Ph. D. '29, Univ. of Mich.; Asst. Prof. of Educ. Psych. and Asst. Dir., Bureau of Educ. Research, Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor, Mich., since 1929.

Keene, Charles H., A. B. '98, M. D. '02, Harvard; Prof. of Hygiene, Univ. of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y., since 1926.

Keezel, Enos L., 6138 University Ave., Chicago, Ill.

Kefauver, Grayson N., B. A. '21, Univ. of Ariz.; M. A. '25, Stanford Univ.; Ph. D. '28, Univ. of Minn.; Assoc. Prof. of Educ., Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y., since 1929.

Keister, W. H., Supt. of Sch., Harrisonburg, Va., since 1894.

Keith, Allen P., Diploma '94, State Normal Sch., Bridgewater, Mass.; Ed. M. '29, R. I. Col. of Educ.; Supt. of Sch., New Bedford, Mass., since 1908.

Keith, C. A., A. B. '17, Univ. of Ga.; Supt. of Sch., Marietta, Ga., since 1920.

Keith, Edna, Diploma '12, Western Ill. State Tchrs. Col., Macomb, Ill.; Elem. Supvr., 1211 Cass St., Joliet, Ill., since 1912.

Keith, John A. H., A. B. '99, A. M. '00, Harvard; D. Pd. '19, Miami Univ.; D. Ed. '28, Temple Univ.; State Supt. of Pub. Instr., State Dept. of Pub. Instr., Harrisburg, Pa., since 1927.

Keith, W. P., A. B. '06, Ouachita Col.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Pine Bluff, Ark., since 1919.

Kelder, J. W., A. B. '04, Hope Col.; A. M. '14, Columbia Univ.; M. Pd. '14, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 313 S. Mich. Ave., Big Rapids, Mich., since 1923.

Keller, Charles P., Ph. B. '96, De Pauw Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Brazil, Ind., since 1914.

Keller, Fred, A. B. '14, Univ. of Ark.; B. J. '15, Univ. of Mo.; Pd. D. '19, N. Y. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Jonesboro, Ark., since 1926.

Keller, Harold E., A. B. '20, M. A. '22, St. Vincent Col.; Supt. of Catholic Schools of South Central, Pa.; 309 S. George St., York, Pa., since 1926.

Keller, J. A., Co. Supt. of Sch., Andalusia, Ala.

Keller, Paul G. W., B. S. '01, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Eau Claire, Wis., since 1924.

Keller, Roy E., B. S. '15, Pa. State Col.; Ed. M. '23, Harvard Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Manchester, Mass., since 1928.

Kelley, D. J., B. A. '17, Monmouth Col.; M. A. '29, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Clear Lake, Iowa, since 1925.

Kelley, Edmund L., Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Memorial Sch., Totowa, N. J.

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Kelley, Roy B., B. S. '19, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Lockport, N. Y., since 1921.

Kellogg, Albert B., B. A. '09, Wheaton Col.; Supt. of Sch., 16 Union Block, Claremont, N. H., since 1921.

Kellum, Howard Albert, Ph. B. '17, Lebanon Univ.; B. S. '18, Antioch Col.; M. A. '27, Univ. of Cincinnati; Supt. of Sch., 634 Jefferson Ave., Reading, Ohio, since 1922.

Kelly, Daniel James, B. S. '04, Pd. D. '19, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Binghamton, N. Y., since 1912.

Kelly, Fred J., Ph. D. '14, Columbia Univ.; Pres., Univ. of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho, since 1928.

Kelly, Glenn K., B. A. '16, Franklin Col.; Supt. of Sch., Houghton, Mich., since 1923.

Kelly, John G., A. B. '13, Wofford Col.; Supt. of Sch., Bennettsville, S. C., since 1926.

Kelsay, H. Paul, A. B. '12, Earlham Col.; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Hartford City, Ind., since 1929.

Kelso, Charles C., B. S. '96, Geneva Col.; D. Ped. '29, Westminster Col., New Wilmington, Pa.; Supt. of Sch., H. S., Swissvale, Pa., since 1914.

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Kemp, Fletcher, Co. Supt. of Sch., Rosslyn, Va.

Kemp, J. F., A. B. '96, Texas Christian Univ.; A. M. '23, Univ. of Texas; Supt. of Sch., Seymour, Texas, since 1920.

Kemp, W. W., Ph. D. '12, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dean, Sch. of Educ., Univ. of Calif., Berkeley, Calif., since 1923.

Kendall, Franklin H., A. B. '87, Ohio Wesleyan Univ.; Co. Supt. of Sch., 143 Mentor Ave., Painesville, Ohio, since 1914.

Kennedy, W. F., A. B. '12, M. A. '14, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Assoc. Supt. of Sch., Admin. Bldg., Pittsburgh, Pa., since 1928.

Kennedy, William H. J., A. B. '12, Harvard Univ.; A. M. '22, Ph. D. '25, Boston Col.; Prin., Tchrs. Col. of the City of Boston, Huntington and Longwood Aves., Boston, Mass., since 1929.

Kent, Ernest B., A. B. '94, Grinnell Col.; A. M. '01, Ph. D. '03, Columbia; Dir. of Manual and Indus. Tr., Bd. of Educ., 2 Harrison Ave., Jersey City, N. J., since 1907.

Kent, Raymond A., A. B. '03, Cornell Col.; A. M. '10, Ph. D. '17, Columbia Univ.; Pres., Univ. of Louisville, Belknap Campus, Louisville, Ky., since 1929.

Kent, Ronald W., A. B. '13, Ind. Univ.; Asst. Dir., Essex Co. Voc. Schools, Hall of Records, Newark, N. J., since 1925.

Kepner, Lee D., A. B. '16, Allegheny Col.; Supt. of Sch., Lisbon, Ohio, since 1927.

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Kerstetter, Newton, A. B. '13, A. M. '17, Susquehanna; Dir., Training Sch., California, Pa., since 1922.

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Keyes, Charles Edwin, M. A. '91, Marietta Col.; Supvr. of Educ. Guidance, Admin. Bldg., Oakland, Calif., since 1929.

Keyes, Charles H., A. B. '08. Amherst Col.; Ed. M. '24, R. I. Col. of Educ.; Supt. of Sch., Barrington, R. I., since 1919.

Keyworth, Maurice R., M. A. '23, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Bd. of Educ., Hamtramck, Mich., since 1923.

Kibbe, Delia E., A. M. '21, Univ. of Chicago; State Supvr. of Elem. Sch., State Dept. of Pub. Instr., Madison, Wis., since 1924.

Kidder, Gordon E., Ph. B. '10, Hamline Univ.; M. A. '28, Columbia Univ.; Supt., Dawson Co. H. S. and Glendive City Sch., 219 W. Allard Ave., Glendive, Mont., since 1925.

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Kies, Harry D., M. A. '20, State Univ. of Iowa; Ph. B., Drake Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Mankato, Minn., since 1923.

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Kimball, V. E., Life Cert. '15, State Normal Sch., Oshkosh, Wis.; Supt. of Sch., Washburn, Wis., since 1925.

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Kingsley, Julius Stanton, A. B. '07, Pd. M. '09, M. Sc. '11, N. Y. Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Middlebury Col., Middlebury, Vt.

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Kirk, H. H., A. B. '13, Ohio Wesleyan; A. M. '26, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Faribault, Minn., since 1924.

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Kirkham, Francis W., A. B. '06, Univ. of Mich.; LL. B. '13, Univ. of Utah; Educ. Dir., Natl. Child Welfare Assn., New York, N. Y., since 1929.

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Klapper, Paul, B. A. '04, Col. of the City of N. Y.; Ph. D. '09, N. Y. Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Dean, Sch. of Educ., Col. of the City of N. Y., New York, N. Y., since 1921.

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Kuntz, Elmer E., A. B. '97, A. M. '98, Dickinson Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., East Stroudsburg, Pa., since 1922.

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Lachmund, Mrs. Fannie L., Ph. B. '84, M. A. '05, Wash. Univ.; Head Asst., Dept. of Educ., Harris Tchrs. Col., St. Louis, Mo., since 1904.

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Lamberton, Horace H., A. M. '15, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 45 Second St., Malone, N. Y., since 1920.

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McClure, Worth, A. B. '08, Simpson Col.; A. M. '20, Univ. of Wash.; Prof., Elem. Sch. Admin., State Tchrs. Col., Buffalo, N. Y., since 1929.

McCollom, Walter W., B. S. '17, Okla. Agrl. and Mech. Col.; Prin., Jr. H. S., Stillwater, Okla., since 1925.

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Mason, Josephine Dwight, A. B. '15, George Washington Univ.; Dir., Dept. of Evening Schools and Immigrant Educ., City Hall, Springfield, Mass., since 1920.

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Pruitt, Eugene Watts, M. A. '26, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Easton, Md., since 1929.

Prunty, Merle, A. B. '09, Univ. of Kansas; A. M. '27, Univ. of Chicago; LL. D. '28, Univ. of Tulsa; Supt. of Sch., Tulsa, Okla., since 1929.

Prutzman, Stuart E., B. A. '23, Pa. State Col.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Mauch Chunk, Pa., since 1928.

Puderbaugh, J. F., A. B. '16, Dickinson Col.; M. A. '28, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Lock Haven, Pa., since 1929.

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Purcell, Thomas M., A. B. '03, Birmingham-Southern Col.; Supt. of Sch., Cochran, Ga., since 1925.

Purdom, J. Leslie, A. B. '06, Centre Col.; A. M. '11, Ph. D. '18, Harvard; Prin., Harris Tchrs. Col., St. Louis, Mo., since 1922.

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Quigley, Samuel, A. B. '05, State Univ. of Iowa; M. A. '11, Univ. of Chicago; D. Litt. '19, Univ. of Denver; Assoc. Prof. of Educ. and Dir., Bureau of Sch. Inquiries, Univ. of Texas, 4932 Walker Ave., Houston, Texas, since 1927.

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Rawlins, Robert E., B. S. '16, Huron Col.; Supt. of Sch., Pierre H. S., Pierre, S. Dak., since 1918.

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Ridgley, Douglas Clay, A. B. '93, Ind. Univ.; M. S. '22, Univ. of Chicago; Ph. D. '25, Clark Univ.; Prof. of Geography in Educ., Clark Univ., Worcester, Mass., since 1922.

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Riggs, Ora M., B. S. '17, Univ. of Chicago; Prin., Knickerbocker Sch., 2301 N. Clifton Ave., Chicago, Ill., since 1922.

Ringle, Mrs. Lillian Newton, A. B. '98, Ottawa Univ.; A. M. '25, Columbia Univ.; Tchr. and Matron, Andrew Drumm Inst., Independence, Mo., since 1929.

Rising, Charles S., B. S. '19, M. A. '28, Univ. of Vt.; Supvg. Prin., Orleans High and Graded Sch., Orleans, Vt., since 1923.

Risley, James H., A. B. '07, Ind. Univ.; Ph. M. '10, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Centennial Bldg., Pueblo, Colo., since 1921.

Ritchie, R. R., B. S. in E. E. '08, M. A. in E. E. '19, Purdue Univ.; A. M. in Ed. '25, Columbia Univ.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., Atlanta, Ga., since 1925.

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Robbins, Chester, A. B. '13, Ursinus Col.; A. M. '22, Univ. of Pa.; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Bridgeton, N. J., since 1927.

Robe, T. S., A. B. '22, Muskingum Col.; Supt. of Sch., Frazeysburg, Ohio, since 1922.

Roberts, Alexander Crippin, A. B. '06, Univ. of Wis.; M. A. '17, Ph. D. '22, Univ. of Wash.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., San Francisco, Calif., since 1927.

Roberts, Bertha E., Life Sec. Admin. Credential '26, San Francisco State Tchrs. Col.; Deputy Supt. of Elem. Sch., City Hall, San Francisco, Calif., since 1919.

Roberts, Clarence R., B. A. '20, Univ. of Okla.; M. A. '28, Univ. of Colo.; Supt., Fairview Independent Sch. Dist., Thrift, Texas.

Roberts, Edward D., B. A. '99, M. A. '07, Univ. of Cincinnati; M. A. '08, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Cincinnati, Ohio, since 1929.

Roberts, Thomas R., Ph. B. '05, Upper Iowa Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Independence, Iowa, since 1918.

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Rogers, Virgil M., A. B. '21, Wofford Col.; M. A. '24, Western State Col.; Supt. of Sch., Gunnison, Colo., since 1926.

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Smiley, William H., A. B. '77, Harvard; A. M. '06, Univ. of Denver; Litt. D. '13, Colo. Col.; LL. D. '13, Univ. of Colo.; LL. D. '14, Univ. of Denver; Supt. Emeritus, Sch. Admin. Bldg., 414 14th St., Denver, Colo., since 1924.

Smith, A. H., A. B. '22, Baylor Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 624 N. Main St., Winters, Texas, since 1923.

Smith, Arthur O., B. S. '11, M. A. '14, N. Y. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Hudson Trust Bldg., Union City, N. J., since 1926.

Smith, B. O., B. S. in Ed. '25, Univ. of Fla.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Tallahassee, Fla., since 1928.

Smith, Bela B., B. A. '07, Lafayette Col.; Supt. of Sch., Connellsville, Pa., since 1920.

Smith, Benjamin L., A. B. '16, Duke Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Shelby, N. C., since 1929.

Smith, C. C., A. B. '12, Lebanon Valley Col.; A. M. '19, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Mt. Union, Pa., since 1920.

Smith, C. O., Diploma '16, State Tchrs. Col., Emporia, Kansas; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Beloit, Kansas, since 1924.

Smith, Carleton Blose, A. B. '19, Oskaloosa, Iowa Col.; Supt. of Sch., 807 S. Ninth St., Pekin, Ill., since 1923.

Smith, Charles A., Supt. of Sch., Provo, Utah.

Smith, Ralph R., Diploma '15, State Normal Sch., Florence, Ala.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Chatom, Ala., since 1917.

Smith, Elmer Francis, B. S. '09, R. I. State Col.; M. A. '21, N. Y. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Grant Ave. and Locust St., Roselle Park, N. J., since 1919.

Smith, Erman S., Supt. of Sch., 528 Grove Ave., Barrington, Ill.

Smith, Felix E., M. S. '00, Univ. of Texas; Supt. of Sch., San Angelo, Texas, since 1905.

Smith, Ferdinand E., A. B. '87, A. M. '90, Hamilton Col.; Supt. of Sch., 15 Lincoln St., Cortland, N. Y., since 1896.

Smith, Frank L., B. S. '10, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 118 E. Main St., Lancaster, N. Y., since 1921.

Smith, George A., Diploma '18, Ill. State Normal Univ.; Supt. of Elem. Schools, 830 Madison Ave., Wood River, Ill., since 1916.

Smith, George A., B. Pd. '15, A. B. '19, Mich. State Normal Col.; A. M. '24, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Plymouth, Mich., since 1918.

Smith, George E., M. D. '07, Univ. of Buffalo; Deputy Supt. of Sch. in charge of Extension Dept., 900 Genesee Blg., Buffalo, N. Y., since 1912.

Smith, George Owen, B. S. '01, Valparaiso Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Princeton, Ill., since 1923.

Smith, Guy D., A. B. '98, Kalamazoo Col.; A. B. '00, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of City Sch. and of Educ. at State Prison, H. S., Stillwater, Minn., since 1924.

Smith, Guy R., Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Renton, Pa.

Smith, Harold W., A. B. '16, East Texas Normal Col.; Supt., Grammar Sch., Glendale, Ariz., since 1925.

Smith, Harry Pearse, A. B. '09, A. M. '15, State Univ. of Iowa; Ph. D. '25, Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Syracuse Univ., Syracuse, N. Y., since 1927.

Smith, Harvey A., A. B. '14, Franklin and Marshall Col.; A. M. '21, Univ. of Pa.; Prin., Central H. S., Washington, D. C., since 1929.

Smith, Henry E., Ph. B. '20, Ph. M. '28, Univ. of Wis.; Supt. of Sch., 1017 N. Chicago Ave., South Milwaukee, Wis., since 1928.

Smith, Henry Lester, A. B. '98, A. M. '99, Ind. Univ.; A. M. '10, Ph. D. '16, Columbia Univ.; Dean, Sch. of Educ., Ind. Univ., Bloomington, Ind.

Smith, Hubert H., B. A. '15, Wabash Col.; M. A. '26, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Hammonton, N. J., since 1926.

Smith, I. S., State Supvr. of Sch., Reidsville, Ga.

Smith, Ira M., LL. B. '09, Indiana Univ.; Registrar, Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor, Mich., since 1925.

Smith, Ivan G., Supt. of Sch., Danvers, Mass.

Smith, James H., A. M. '16, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., West Side, Aurora, Ill., since 1923.

Smith, James M., A. B. '21, McMaster Univ.; A. M. '22, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Lockport, Ill., since 1925.

Smith, James M., Pd. B. '13, Valparaiso Univ.; B. A. '21, La. State Univ.; M. A. '25, Ph. D. '27, Columbia Univ.; Dean, Col. of Educ., Southwestern La. Inst., Lafayette, La., since 1922.

Smith, Jesse Lowe, Supt. of Sch., Dist. 107, 334 Vine Ave., Highland Park, Ill., since 1902.

Smith, John E., B. A. '20, Univ. of Dubuque; M. A. '27, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., 926 Elm St., Webster City, Iowa, since 1925.

Smith, John L., B. S. '08, R. I. State Col.; A. M. '15, Brown Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Saylesville, R. I., since 1917.

Smith, Leon O., B. A. '10, M. A. '18, Univ. of Iowa; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 602 City Hall, Omaha, Nebr., since 1919.

Smith, Leonard D., A. B. '09, Middlebury Col.; Supt. of Sch., Morrisville, Vt., since 1922.

Smith, Lewis Wilbur, A. B. '02, Denison Univ.; A. M. '13, Ph. D. '19, Univ. of Chicago; LL. D. '28, Denison Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Berkeley, Calif., since 1928.

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Smith, Montgomery C., A. B. '00, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Hudson, N. Y., since 1922.

Smith, Nelson C., B. L. '01, Boston Univ.; M. L. '10, Univ. of Calif.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Leonia, N. J., since 1921.

Smith, Payson, A. M. '03, Tufts Col.; LL. D. '08, Univ. of Maine; '09, Bates Col.; Litt. D. '11, Bowdoin Col.; Pres., Dept. of Superintendence, 1923-24; State Commr. of Educ., Boston, Mass., since 1916.

Smith, Philip L., B. Sc. '17, Mass. Agrl. Col.; Supvg. Prin., North Troy High and Graded Sch., North Troy, Vt., since 1926.

Smith, Preston H., Ph. B. '93, Colgate; Supt. of Sch., 93 W. 34th St., Bayonne, N. J., since 1917.

Smith, Ralph R., Diploma '15, State Normal Sch.; Supt., Dunbar Twp. Sch., Dawson, Pa., since 1919.

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Smith, Raymond A., A. B. '00, A. M. '04, Butler Col.; B. D. '05, Yale; Dir., Sch. of Educ., Texas Christian Univ., Ft. Worth, Texas, since 1920.

Smith, Roy C., A. B. '06, Western Md. Col.; A. M. '11, Univ. of Pa.; Supt. of Sch., Spruce and Walnut Sts., Morgantown, W. Va., since 1913.

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Smith, W. M., B. S. D. '99, State Normal Sch., Monmouth, Oregon; Asst. State Supt. of Pub. Instr., 1485 Center St., Salem, Oregon, since 1900.

Smith, W. Ray., B. S. '19, M. A. '29, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Supt. of Sch., Lincoln H. S., Ellwood City, Pa., since 1924.

Smith, W. S., B. S. in Ed. '16, Univ. of Mo.; Supt. of Sch., H. S. Bldg., Excelsior Springs, Mo., since 1921.

Smith, William Alexander, A. B. '90, Williams; A. M. '12, Columbia; Supt. of Sch., Hackensack, N. J., since 1923.

Smith, William C., B. S. '24, Columbia Univ.; Chief, Adult Educ. Bureau, State Educ. Dept., Albany, N. Y., since 1917.

Smith, William E., Supt. of Sch., Boston Post Rd., Fairfield, Conn.

Smith, William F., A. B. '06, Ind. Univ.; A. M. '26, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Elwood, Ind., since 1923.

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Snead, Judson, B. Voc. Ed., B. S. in Ed. and M. A. '24, Univ. of Ala.; Supt. of Sch., Talladega, Ala., since 1925.

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Snyder, R. H., A. B. '12, Ind. Univ.; M. A. '19, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Idaho Falls, Idaho, since 1919.

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Snyder, Ray Perkins, Chief, Rural Educ. Bureau, State Educ. Dept., 28 Menand Rd., Albany, N. Y., since 1923.

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Sorum, Marie, B. A. '17; Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Estherville, Iowa, since 1918.

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Spalsbury, Ross L., Dist. Supt., U. S. Indian Service, 309 E. 19th St., Lawrence, Kansas, since 1921.

Sparks, Ralph P., A. B. '22, Ind. State Normal Sch.; Prin., Public Schools, Free-land Park, Ind., since 1920. Address: Fowler, Ind.

Sparks, Robert Burdette, A. B. '19, Southwestern Univ.; A. M. '26, Univ. of Chicago; Prin., H. S., Marshall, Texas, since 1926.

Sparling, E. A., B. S. in Ed. '16, State Tchrs. Col., Kirksville, Mo.; Supt. of Sch., City Hall Bldg., Muscatine, Iowa, since 1926.

Spaulding, C. E., A. B. '97, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Plymouth, Ind., since 1924.

Spaulding, Frank E., A. B. '89, Amherst; A. M., Ph. D. '94, Leipzig; LL. D. '20, Amherst; A. M., Hon. '20, Yale; Prof. of Educ., Yale Univ., 64 Cold Spring St., New Haven, Conn., since 1920.

Speer, Owen D., A. B. '16, Univ. of Mont.; Supt. of Sch., Deer Lodge, Mont., since 1914.

Speerbrecher, Henry George, B. S. '22, Univ. of Chicago; M. A. '28, Univ. of Wis.; Prin., Roosevelt Jr. H. S., Milwaukee, Wis., since 1926.

Spencer, John O., Ph. D. '93, Ill. Wesleyan Univ.; A. M. '02, Columbia Univ.; LL. D. '25, Wash. Col.; Pres., Morgan Col., Baltimore, Md., since 1902.

Spencer, Robert R., A. B. '23, Univ. of Hawaii; Prin., Washington Jr. H. S., Pensacola and King Sts., Honolulu, Hawaii, since 1926.

Spencer, Thomas E., 911 Locust, St. Louis, Mo.

Spencer, William L., B. A. '02, Williams Col.; M. A. '15, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir. of Sec. Educ., State Dept. of Educ., Montgomery, Ala., since 1920.

Spiess, G. Adolph, Livermore, Calif.

Spitler, H. Carl, B. S. '17, Northwestern Col., Naperville, Ill.; Supt. of Sch., 509 State St., Petoskey, Mich., since 1923.

Spray, L. Ethel, A. B. '21, Bethany Col.; Asst. Co. Supt. of Sch., 159 Hollywood Ave., Youngstown, Ohio, since 1927.

Sprenkle, William Howard, M. S. '01, Gettysburg Col.; Prin., Carrick H. S., 112 Birmingham Ave., Mt. Oliver Branch, Pittsburgh, Pa., since 1926.

Springsteed, Clara B., B. A. '08, Mt. Holyoke Col.; Pd. B. '10, N. Y. State Col. for Tchrs.; M. A. '17, Univ. of Wis.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 41 Division St., Amsterdam, N. Y., since 1921.

Spry, Edward W., A. M. '22, Rochester Univ.; Supt. of Sch., LeRoy, N. Y.

Squire, Alice E., Supvr. of Health Educ., Oak Harbor, Ohio.

Srygley, Hubbard F., B. S. '16, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; Supt. of Sch., 203 Professional Bldg., Raleigh, N. C., since 1922.

Stacy, Chester R., Diploma '00, Mass. State Normal Sch.; Union Supt. of Sch., South Yarmouth, Mass., since 1929.

Stahl, H. E., A. B. '14, Ind. Univ.; A. M. '18, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Claymont Special Sch. Dist., Claymont, Del., since 1922.

Staley, A. H., Supt. of Sch., Hastings, Nebr.

Staley, George R., B. S. '00, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 106 N. George St., Rome, N. Y., since 1912.

Staley, Raymond E., A. B. '12, St. John's Col.; A. M. '24, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Asst. Supt. and Prin., Haskell Inst., Lawrence, Kansas, since 1929.

Stambaugh, J. Lee, B. A. '20, M. A. '24, Univ. of Texas; Supt. of Pharr-San Juan Pub. Sch., San Juan, Texas, since 1920.

Stanford, Edward Rosemond, A. B. '07, M. A. '10, Southwestern; M. A. '12, B. D. '13 Yale Univ.; Pres., Westmoorland Col., San Antonio, Texas, since 1923.

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Staples, Leon C., A. B. '03, Colby Col.; Supt. of Sch., Plainville, Conn.

Staples, Le Roy G., A. B. '00, Bates Col.; Supt. of Sch., City Hall, Warren, R. I., since 1910.

Stark, Leonard J., Supt. of Sch., Lincoln, Kansas.

Stark, M. F., B. S. in Ed. '22, State Tchrs. Col., Emporia, Kansas; Supt. of Sch., Greensburg, Kansas, since 1925.

Stark, William E., A. B. '95, A. M. '01, Harvard Univ.; Dean of the Col., Hampton Inst., Hampton, Va.

Starkweather, James A., A. B. '01, Shurtleff Col.; A. M. '16, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 226 N. First Ave., E., Duluth, Minn., since 1919.

Starr, Fred M., A. B. '01, De Pauw Univ.; A. M. '15, Tri-State Col.; Supt. of Sch., Noblesville, Ind., since 1927.

Stayman, Joseph W., Ph. B. '94, A. M. '97, Dickinson Col.; Pres., Potomac State Sch., Keyser, W. Va., since 1912.

Steegar, William H., Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Garfield, N. J.

Steele, E. J., A. B. '22, Ohio Univ.; Prin., H. S., Frankfort, Ohio, since 1925.

Steele, Harold, B. S. '02, Albion Col.; M. A. '08, Univ. of Wis. Address: 814 E. Huron St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

Steele, N. E., M. A. '27, State Univ. of Iowa; Secy., S. Dak. Educ. Assn., Room 3, Perry Bldg., Sioux Falls, S. Dak., since 1924.

Steere, William S., Ed. M. '28, R. I. Col. of Educ.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 9 Exchange Ter., Providence, R. I., since 1926.

Steffey, A. J., A. B. '14, Northwestern Univ.; M. A. '28, Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Knoxville, Iowa, since 1925.

Steiner, John H., Supt. of Sch., 2225 Hampshire St., Quincy, Ill.

Steiner, Melvin A., B. A. '09, Col. of Wooster; M. A. '13, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Ingram, Pittsburgh, Pa., since 1918.

Stephens, Edwin L., A. B. '92, La. State Univ.; Pd. M. '97, Pd. D. '99, N. Y. Univ.; Pres., Southwestern La. Inst., Lafayette, La., since 1900.

Stephens, Ernest, A. B. '10, Dartmouth Col.; Ed. M. '27, Harvard Univ.; Deputy Supt. of Sch., 40 Franklin St., Lynn, Mass., since 1927.

Stephens, W. R., Jr., A. B. '15, Hendrix Col.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Star City, Ark., since 1921.

Stephens, William Logan, A. B. '89, Univ. of Nebr.; Supt. of Sch., 715 Locust Ave., Long Beach, Calif., since 1912.

Stern, Bessie C., A. B. '09, Cornell Univ.; M. Ed. '21, Harvard Univ.; Statistician, Md. State Dept. of Educ., 2014 Lexington Bldg., Baltimore, Md., since 1921.

Stetson, G. Arthur, B. S. '19, Allegheny Col.; M. A. '27, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Titusville, Pa., since 1928.

Stetson, Paul C., A. B. '07, Kalamazoo Col.; A. B. '07, A. M. '17, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Dayton, Ohio, since 1921.

Stevens, E. R., M. S. '25, Univ. of Kansas; Prin., Jr. Col. and High Schools, Independence, Kansas, since 1926.

Stevens, James M., B. A. '87, M. A. '90, Conn. Wesleyan Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 619 Wesley Ave., Ocean City, N. J., since 1903.

Stevens, Scott W., Prin., H. S., Scottsville, N. Y.

Stevenson, Dwight H., Ph. D. '26, Ohio State Univ.; Head, Dept. of Educ., State Normal Sch., Potsdam, N. Y., since 1924.

Stevenson, Fred G., A. B. '08, Univ. of Mich.; A. M. '29, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Central Bldg., Dubuque, Iowa, since 1926.

Stevenson, Idabelle, A. B. '16, Smith Col.; Exec. Secy., Natl. Safety Council, 1 Park Ave., New York, N. Y., since 1926.

Stewart, David H., B. S. '15, Pa. State Col.; A. M. '25, Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Beaver Sr. H. S., Beaver, Pa., since 1923.

Stewart, E. L., Life Cert. '11, Ind. State Normal Sch.; A. B. '22, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 115 Kimmel St., Berrien Springs, Mich., since 1925.

Stewart, Mrs. Ema, Prin., Woodrow Wilson Elem. Sch., Houston, Texas, since 1918.

Stewart, Paul E., L. I. '03, Peabody Col.; A. B. '11, Stanford Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Santa Barbara, Calif., since 1919.

Stiles, Chester D., A. B. '00, A. M. '09, Williams; Sc. Pd. '17, Clark Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 186 Main St., Westfield, Mass., since 1918.

Stilwell, H. W., B. A. '09, M. A. '19, Univ. of Texas; Supt. of Sch., Texarkana, Texas, since 1920.

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Stinebaugh, Virgil, A. M. '27, Columbia Univ.; Dir. of Sch. Inspection, State Dept. of Educ., Indianapolis, Ind., since 1928.

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Stoddard, A. J., B. S. '21, Univ. of Nebr.; M. A. '22, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 9 Exchange Ter., Providence, R. I., since 1929.

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Stoddard, J. A., A. B. '02, Univ. of S. C.; M. A. '24, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; Prof. of Sec. Educ. and Dir. of Summer Sch., Univ. of S. C., Columbia, S. C., since 1918.

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Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union, Indianapolis, Ind.

Public Library, Indianapolis, Ind.

Library, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.

Administration Library, Independent School District, Garfield Bldg., Des Moines, Iowa.

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Table | LIST OF TABLES | Page

LIST OF TABLES

Table — Page

1. Related Supervisory Activities Rising Out of Administrative, Instructional, and Coordinate Situations ---- 23
2. The Percentage of the Elementary Principal's Time Given to Supervision and Other Duties, According to Eleven Different Studies ---- 25
3. Ideal Distributions of the Elementary School Principal's School Day ---- 25
4. Supervisory Duties Performed by More Than One-Half of 140 Superintendents Reporting ---- 27
5. Supervisory Duties Performed by Less Than One-Half and More Than One-Third of 140 Superintendents Reporting ---- 28
6. The Effect of Size of Enrolment upon the Performance of Supervisory Duties by Superintendents of Schools ---- 28
7. Supervisory Duties of Major and Average Importance Which Were Performed by Over 50 Percent of 658 Elementary School Principals ---- 29-30
8. Supervisory Duties Undesirable for Elementary School Principals to Perform ---- 30
9. Supervisory Duties of Primary and Average Importance Which Were Performed by Over 50 Percent of Superintendents, High-School Principals, or Elementary School Principals ---- 31-32
10. Supervisory Duties of Primary Importance Which Were Performed by Less Than 50 Percent of Public School Administrators ---- 33
11. Percentages of Superintendents Who Reported Various Degrees of Direction Given Supervisors in Items Relating to Instruction ---- 36
12. Percentages of Superintendents Who Reported Various Degrees of Direction Given Supervisors in Their Activities ---- 37
13. A Summary Statement of the Activities of Special Supervisors in Detroit Public Schools ---- 40-41
14. Typical Examples of the Specific Training Activities of Supervisors ---- 42
15. The Percentages of Time Given by Detroit Supervisors to Different Supervisory Activities ---- 43
16. Types of Supervisory Organization Distributed by Size of Cities ---- 67
17. Nature of Classroom Visits Made by General Elementary Supervisors ---- 70
18. Activities of General Elementary Supervisors While Observing Classroom Teaching ---- 71
19. Follow-Up Devices Used by General Elementary Supervisors After a Classroom Visit ---- 72
20. Types of Assistance Given Teachers During the Directed Teaching Period ---- 73
21. Principles of Procedure in Planning and Conducting Demonstration Teaching ---- 75
22. Nature of the Supervision Given Teachers Doing Directed Observation ---- 76
23. Facts Relative to Four Kinds of Teachers' Meetings in City and Rural School Systems ---- 79
24. List of Those Who Have a Place on the Programs of Different Types of Teachers' Meetings ---- 79

25. Percentage of Supervisors, Specialists, Superintendents, and Teachers Rating Certain Supervisory Devices as "Very Valuable" and Recommending that They Be "Used Often or Emphasized" 81
26. Types of Demonstration Teaching Used by General Elementary Supervisors 83
27. Summary of Percentages of a Normal Year of School Work Achieved in Nine School Subjects in Supervised and in Unsupervised Schools 101
28. Percents by Which Progress in Demonstration Counties Exceeded Progress in the Control Counties 103
29. Relative Gains in Knowledge of Geography of Four Groups of Pupils, One Group Unsupervised and Three Groups Each Supervised Differently 105
30. Comparison of Gross Scores on Initial and Final Tests in Handwriting of Four Groups of Pupils, One Group Unsupervised and Three Groups Each Supervised Differently 106
31. A Comparison of the First and Second Surveys of Study of Reading Objectives in Minneapolis 110-11
32. Changes in Teachers from Teacher-Domination to Pupil-Activity Type 117
33. Comparison of the Judgments of Elementary Teachers and Educational Specialists Concerning the Extent of Use and Value of Certain Supervisory Activities and Devices 130-31
34. Summary of Courses Required and Courses Suggested for Persons Interested in the Work of Supervision 219
35. States Which Issue, and Requirements for, Special Certificates for Administration or Supervision or Both 226-27
36. Percent of Time Devoted by Supervisors of Glendale, Calif., to Special Activities 238
37. Number of Persons Enrolled in Education Courses in Summer Schools 272
38. Number and Percent of Cities Granting Leave for Professional Improvement and Amount of Salary During Leave 292
39. Partial List of Cities Having Single Salary Schedule 295
40. Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence 353
41. Membership of the Department of Superintendence by States, 1924-1929 356

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure — Page
I. The Dualistic Type of Supervisory Organization 54
II. A Schematic Representation of Line and Staff Organization 55
III. An Illustration of the Coordinate Type of Organization 57
IV. Principal's Record of Each Lesson's Objectives 109
V. Problem List for a Conference Section 282

LIST OF CHARTS

Chart — Page
I. Principles of Supervision 143
II. Detailed Check List for Making an Analysis of the Supervisory Needs of a Teacher of Arithmetic 157-61
III. The MacQuarrie Graphic Supervision Chart 165
IV. Placement of Responsibility Among Supervisory Officers in East Chicago, Ind. 236

INDEX OF NAMES

Page

Alexander, Thomas 203
Anderson, C. J. 265
Ashbaugh, E. J. 107
Ayer, Fred C. 3, 4, 19, 27, 28, 31, 34, 39, 46, 48, 52, 58
Ayres, Leonard P. 163, 193
Bagley, William C. 170
Ballou, Frank W. ..3, 4, 5, 286, 352, 357
Bamberger, Florence 170
Barr, Arvil S. 3, 4, 5, 19, 27, 28, 39, 40, 41, 42, 46, 48, 52, 58, 86, 163, 170, 208, 213, 265
Bates, Guy 22, 25
Bathurst, J. E. 146
Bauer, Nicholas 358
Beatty, Willard W. 199
Benezet, L. P. 358
Bennett, Henry E. 170
Benson, J. R. 25
Betts, G. H. 170
Bickett, William J. 351
Bird, G. E. 212
Bjarnason, Lofter 170
Bobbitt, Franklin 171, 215
Boynton, Frank D. ..3, 349, 350, 357, 358
Breed, F. S. 155
Briggs, Delia C. 43, 48
Brink, W. G. 35
Broome, E. C. 358
Brown, R. H. 201
Brueckner, Leo J. 3, 4, 5, 146, 148, 149, 152, 171
Burke, Jeremiah E. 353
Burton, William H. 3, 4, 5, 52, 86, 172, 208, 213
Bush, Maybell G. 265
Charles, Fred 254
Charters, W. W. 16, 172, 214, 215
Clark, John A. 146
Clark, M. G. 350, 358
Cocking, Walter D. 177, 206
Cody, Frank 3, 351, 352, 353, 360
Collings, Ellsworth 122, 172
Condon, Randall J. 350, 352, 353, 357, 358
Connor, William L. 146, 172
Cook, Albert S. 3, 4, 358
Cook, Katherine M. 269
Cooper, Harry 245
Courtis, S. A. 104, 146, 147, 171, 172
Covert, Timon 269
Crabbs, Lelah M. 118, 146
Crouch, Roy 25

Page

Crow, C. S. 172
Crozier, Norman R. 3, 349, 350, 351
Cutright, Prudence 171, 184
Deffenbaugh, W. S. 269
De Groat, Harry De W. 358
Denny, W. A. 360
Dondineau, Arthur 202
Dorsey, Susan M. 350
Dyer, Franklin B. 286
Dyer, W. P. 22, 28, 29, 30, 34, 48
Eikenberry, D. H. 26, 47
Elliott, Charles H. 351
Engelhardt, N. L. 45, 161
English, Mildred 25, 202
Felton, Florence 276
Ferriss, E. N. 269
Finegan, Thomas E. 273
Flowers, Ida V. 25
Fox, Florence C. 269
Frasier, G. W. 119
Fuller, Henry Harrison 336
Gage, Lucy 203
Gage, Snyder J. 358
Gilland, Thomas M. 95, 96
Gist, Arthur 208
Gorman, Elizabeth 276
Gray, W. S. 152, 175
Gwinn, J. M. 4, 350, 353
Haggerty, M. E. 173
Hampton, W. O. 22, 25
Hartshorne, Hugh 173
Herring, John P. 173
Hixson, Helen T. 360
Hodge, Lamont F. 357, 358
Hoffman, U. J. 270
Holston, Evelyn T. 198
Horn, Ernest 163, 173
Hosic, J. F. 218
Hughes, C. L. 22, 26, 47
Hughes, J. M. 173
Jones, C. Edward 276
Jones, Franklin 193
Jones, Robinson G. 254
Kendricks, Jake J. 258
Judd, Charles H. 357, 358
Kelly, Daniel J. 358
Kent, R. A. 146
Keyworth, Maurice R. 115, 118
King, LeRoy 144
Knight, F. B. 146, 173
Koos, L. V. 173
Kuehny, M. S. 25

Index of Names (Cont.)

Page
Langworthy, Harry W. 358
Lettler, Sherman 265
Lewis, E. E. 3, 349, 350, 351
Littauer, Lucius N. 358
Lombard, J. E. 102
Lommen, Georgiana 74
Long, Wilbur E. 168
Loomis, Arthur K. 185
McAndrew, William 350
McClure, Worth 22, 25
McGregor, A. Laura 358
McIntyre, Miss 90
MacQuarrie, Archibald E. 164
Madsen, I. N. 146
Mann, Annette 298
Martin, W. H. 25
May, Mark A. 173
Mead, C. D. 147, 173
Meek, Charles S. 358
Melby, Ernest O. 27, 38, 49, 130
Meriam, Junius L. 145
Minor, Ruby 188
Monroe, Walter S. 16, 146, 173
Morrison, Henry C. 167, 168, 174
Morrison, J. Cayce 25, 273
Norton, Margaret Alltucker 5
Nusbaum, Louis 360
Nutt, Hubert Wilbur 52, 58, 174, 208
Olson, Willard C. 174
O'Shea, M. V. 269
Owens, M. R. 92
Paulu, E. M. 174
Pfeiffer, Sara 276
Phelps, Shelton 203
Pickell, Frank G. 349, 350
Pittman, M. S. 63, 104, 119
Pollock, C. A. 174
Pottenger, Mary O. 196
Pryor, H. C. 193
Puckett, Roscoe 174
Rankin, Paul T. 289
Redford, Walter 27, 48
Rhett, A. B. 358
Risk, T. M. 43, 48

Page
Robinson, Ernest 276
Ross, Eleanore 276
Ruch, G. M. 146
Ruediger, William C. 273
Rugg, H. O. 145
Russell, Charles 279
Rutledge, Richard E. 186
Saunders, Joseph H. 358
Scott, Zenos E. 3, 4, 5
Sears, J. B. 146
Shankland, Sherwood D. 3, 359, 360
Simpson, I. Jewell 3, 4, 5
Skean, A. H. 351
Smith, W. C. 358
Southall, Maycie 65, 133
Spain, Charles L. 3, 4, 5
Steinmetz, Kathryn 90
Stetson, Paul C. 3, 349, 350
Stevens, Romiett 163, 174
Stone, C. R. 174
Strayer, George D. 3, 4, 45
Streitz, Ruth 175
Telford, Fred 146
Thayer, V. T. 146
Tiegs, E. W. 145, 248
Trabue, M. R. 203
Troxel, O. L. 173
Underwood, Frank M. 3, 349, 350, 351
Van Ornum, Belle D. 276
Vogel, M. 175
Waples, Douglas 156, 157, 172, 175
Waldo, D. B. 358
Washburne, C. W. 175
Weber, S. E. 360
Weglein, David E. 3, 278, 351
Whitcomb, Emeline S. 269
Whitney, F. L. 146
Whittaker, Miss 90
Wilbur, Ray Lyman 351
Windes, Eustace E. 269
Woody, Clifford 16
Wright, Arthur D. 358
Yawberg, A. O. 270
Zirbes, Laura 163, 175

SUBJECT INDEX

Administration, relation to supervision, 14.
Administrative officers:
  Participation in supervision, 23.
  Supervisory duties of, 23-34.
Aids to training, 268.
American history, improving teaching of, 324.
Analysis of:
  Characteristics of pupil behavior, 167.
  Classroom activities, 163.
Arithmetic:
  Check list of supervisory needs of teacher of, 157.
  Teaching unrelated to experience, 302.
Articulation, improved by supervisors, 241.
Attention technic, 168.
Baltimore, Md., demonstration courses in, 278.
Berkeley, Calif., spelling course in, 188.
Bibliography re technics for making surveys of instruction, 170.
Birmingham, Ala., training supervisors in, 243.
Bronxville, N. Y., curriculum building in, 199.
Buffalo, N. Y., regulation re leaves of absence in, 293.
Bulletins:
  City boards of education, 271.
  County supervisory, 270.
  National Education Association, 269.
  State departments of education, 270.
  U. S. Bureau of Education, 269.
Calendar of meetings, 365.
Case studies:
  Of curriculum building, 205.
  Of supervision, 123.
Certificates in supervision:
  Duration, 224.
  Requirements, 223.
  States requiring, 226.
Check list of supervisory needs, 157.
Classroom management, 330.
Classroom visitation, 70.
Cleveland convention, 349.
Cleveland, Ohio, training of supervisors in, 254.
Commission on Supervision:
  Personnel, 3.
  Work in preparing 1930 Yearbook, 4-6.
Committee on lay relations, 358.
Composition revision, 317.
Compulsion type of teaching, 150.
Conferences:
  Principal with inexperienced teacher, 322-23.
  Superintendent with supervisor, 229.
Constitution and bylaws, 361.
Coördinate organization with instructional committees, 59.
Coordinate system of supervision, 56.
County-unit plan of supervision, an evaluation of, 103.
Course of study:
  A factor in improving instruction, 176.
  A factor in supervision in Oakland, 186.
  A teacher-training activity, 184.
  Functions of, 177.
  Process of making, 179.
Course-of-study building:
  General supervisor's part in, 181.
  Principal's part in, 180.
  Special supervisor's part in, 181.
  Specialist's part in, 183.
  Teacher's part in, 180.
Course of training:
  Required for supervisory work, 219.
  Suggested for supervisory work, 219.
Creative supervision, 343.
Current practices in supervision, evaluated, 130.
Curriculum, content of, 179.
Curriculum building:
  Case studies of, 205.
  In Bronxville, N. Y., 199.
  In Detroit, Mich., 202.
  In Raleigh, N. C., 202.
  In St. Cloud, Minn., 201.
  Outcomes in the improvement of teaching, 206.
  Relation to supervision, 176.
  Relationship of groups to, 206.
Curriculum revision:
  A teacher-training activity, 184.
  Major purposes of, 178.
  Mechanical set-ups for making continuous, 181
Democracy in supervision, 52, 343.
Demonstration courses, 278.
Demonstration schools, 277.
Demonstration teaching:
  Number of demonstrations, 74.
  Procedure for conducting, 74.
  Types of, 74.
Denver's appraisal program, 185.
Department of Superintendence:
  Calendar of meetings, 365.
  Constitution and bylaws, 361.
  Executive Committee, 3, 349.
  Financial statement, 355.
  Membership by states, 356.
  Officers, 1929-30, 3.
  Report of Auditing Committee, 360.
  Report of Executive Secretary, 349.
  Yearbooks, 353.
Desk work, helping teacher to improve, 305.
Detroit, Mich.:
  Activities of special supervisors in, 40.
  Curriculum-building program in, 201.
  Division of supervisor's time in, 239.
  Means used to help supervisors in, 230.
Directed observation:
  Frequency of use, 75.
  Length of each observation, 75.
  Method of procedure, 75.
Directed teaching, 72.
Director of instruction, duties of, 21.
Donora, Pa., supervisory program in, 95.
Dualistic system of supervision, 53.
East Chicago, Ind., supervisory officers, 236.
Educational research fund, 350, 357.
Educational research service, 357.
Elementary school principal:
  As a supervisor, 24.
  Duties undesirable for him to perform, 30.
  Functions of, 22.
  Ideal distribution of his time, 25.
  Percent of time given to supervision, 25.
Elementary supervision, special features and agencies of, 65.
Engelhardt scale, 162.
Errors, elimination of, in teaching procedures, 155.
Evaluation of supervision, 161.
Executive Committee, Department of Superintendence:
  Meetings, 1929-30, 349.
  Personnel, 3, 349.
Experimentation, an aid to training teachers, 289.
Faculty meetings, 338.
Financial statement of Department of Superintendence, 355.

Subject Index (Cont.)

Follow-up devices used by supervisors, 71.
Foreword, 4.
Functions of supervision:
  Guidance, 209.
  Inspection, 208.
  Professional and semi-administrative duties, 210.
  Research, 209.
  Training, 209.
General elementary supervisors:
  Activities while observing classroom teaching, 71.
  Experience of, 68.
  Grades supervised by, 67.
  Number of teachers per, 68.
  Professional qualifications of, 66.
  Titles of, 66.
  Types of demonstration teaching used by, 83.
  Years in present positions, 68.
  General language course, 318.
  General supervisor, 46.
Geography:
  Supervision of, 104.
  Teaching a sixth-grade lesson in, 307.
Glendale, Calif., organization of supervision, 238.
Group-attention score, 168.
Guidance in the junior high school, 339.
Hamtramck, Mich.:
  Public school code, 21.
  Supervisory program in spelling, 115.
Handwriting, supervisory procedures in, 106.
Helping a strong teacher, 311.
High-school principal, supervisory duties performed by, 26, 29.
High-school supervision in Arkansas, 93.
Homogeneous grouping, 338.
Homogeneous groups, needs of X, Y, Z, 334.
Improvement, inducements and rewards for, 290.
Improving teachers in service, 215.
Indifferent class of boys, 316.
Individual conferences:
  Length of, 77.
  Time, place, and conditions, 77.
  Types of, 76.
Induction of new teachers, 10
In-service training:
  Experimentation an aid to, 289.
  Through supervision, 263.
Intra-building organization, 64.
Jersey City, N. J., regulation re leaves of absence in, 293.
Kerens, Texas, training of supervisors in, 258.
Kindergarten work period, 329.
Leaves of absence:
  Cities granting, 292.
  Provisions for, with pay, 291.
  Provisions for, without pay, 291.
Leland Stanford Junior University, school supervision credential, 220.
Library hour in rural school, 301.
Line and staff organization, 54, 60.
Lynn, Mass., relation of supervisors to curriculum building, 231.
MacQuarrie's supervision chart, 164.
Maryland:
  Summer school course in supervision, 261.
  Supervisory meetings, 259.
Means of supervision:
  Classroom visitation, 70.
  Demonstration teaching, 74.
  Directed observation, 74.
  Directed teaching, 72.
  Individual conferences, 75.
  Teachers' meetings, 78.
Measuring changes:
  In levels of teaching, 152.
  In teaching method and skill, 146.
Measuring supervision, suggested experimental studies in, 141.
Methods of teaching, defined by Courtis, 148.
Minneapolis, Minn.:
  Social studies in, 184.
  Training supervisors in, 245.
Oakland, Calif.:
  Courses of study as factors in supervision, 186.
  Supervisory program evaluated by teachers, 133.
Official records, 347.
Organization of supervision:
  General principles of, 44.
  In Glendale, Calif., 238.
  In small school systems, 58.
Personnel for carrying on supervision, 45.
Planning of supervisory programs, 86.
Preliminary conferences, 275.
Principles:
  Of organization, 49.
  Of supervision, 143.
Probationary period, 264.
Professional reading, 268.
Professional spirit, 13.
Publications of the Department of Superintendence, 352.
Pupil behavior, objective analysis of, 167.
Qualities desirable in supervisors, 212.
Radio commission, 351.
Raleigh, N. C., curriculum-building program in, 202.
Reading:
  Course in Springfield, 196.
  Demonstrations in, 331.
  Eight levels of activities in the teaching of, 153.
  Effectiveness of supervision in, 108.
  Lesson with third-grade pupils in, 299.
  Principal's record of objectives in, 109.
Relationships of supervisory officers, 45.
Report of:
  Auditing Committee, 360.
  Executive Secretary, 349.
Research Division, N. E. A., 5.
Rural schools:
  Organization of supervision in, 63.
  State supervision of, 63.
  Supervision of instruction in, 61.
  Value of supervision in, 119.
Rural supervision:
  Evaluation of, in Michigan, 100.
  Pittman's study of, 104.
  What teachers think of it, 127.
St. Cloud, Minn., curriculum-building program, 201.
Salary schedules:
  Fundamental principles relative to, 293.
  Relation to quality of teachers, 293.
  Single, 294.
Scientific supervision, 343.
Self-improvement outlines, 284, 285, 286-89.
Single-salary schedule:
  Cities having, 295.
  Definition of, 294.
Small school system, elements of weakness in supervisory organization of, 58.

Subject Index (Cont.)

Social studies:
  In Minneapolis, 184.
  Unified course in Springfield, 198.
Special supervisors:
  Activities in Detroit schools, 40.
  Duties of, 38.
  Specific training activities of, 42.
Spelling:
  Building of course in Berkeley, Calif., 188.
  Evaluation of supervisory program in, 115.
Springfield, Mass.:
  Reading course in, 196.
  Social studies course in, 198.
Stenographic reports:
  Of demonstrations in reading, 331.
  Supervisory conferences, 319, 320.
Student failures, 340.
Summer school:
  Enrolment, 272.
  Programs for encouraging attendance at, 242.
Superintendents of schools:
  Activities in training supervisors in service, 225, 229.
  Degrees of direction given supervisors, 36.
  Direction supervisors should receive from, 38.
  Practices in directing activities of supervisors, 35.
  Supervisory duties performed by, 26-58.
Supervised study, 341.
Supervising teacher, 46, 61.
Supervision:
  A necessity, 266.
  Allocation of functions, 18.
  By parishes in Louisiana, 102.
  Creative versus administrative, 21.
  Meaning and necessity of, 9-13.
  Philosophy of, 9.
  Principles apply to all teachers, 13.
  Relation to administration, 14, 19-23.
  Rise of, 19-21.
  Training for, 207.
Supervision, functions of:
  Additional, 18.
  Guidance, 17.
  Inspection, 15.
  Research, 15-16.
  Training, 16-17.
Supervisors:
  Duties of, 19-48.
  Improvement of personal equipment, 233.
  Perspective of activities, 237.
  Training for liaison officers, 235.
  Training in service, 225.
Supervisors, conferences:
  General use made of, 298.
  Relative effectiveness of individual and group, 336.
  With individual teachers, 298.
Supervisors' philosophy, 141.
Supervisory devices:
  Extent and use of, 80.
  Rated according to use, 82.
  Rated according to value, 84.
Supervisory duties:
  Of primary and average importance, 31-34.
  Summary statement of, 208.
Supervisory organization, types of, 67.
Supervisory outcomes, checks and criteria for evaluating, 92.
Supervisory programs:
  Derivation of objectives of, 88.
  High schools of Arkansas, 93.
  In Donora, Pa., 95.
  Reasons for planning, 87.
  Special objectives of, 44.
Teacher failure, causes of, 265.
Teacher improvement, relation of administrative practice to, 296.
Teacher rating:
  Blanks for, 144.
  Summary of investigations re, 145.
  Teacher training, aids from within the school system, 273.
Teachers' estimates of supervisors, 212.
Teachers' difficulties, elimination of, 156.
Teachers' institutes:
  New York State program, 276.
  Relation to supervision, 273.
Teachers' meetings:
  Group, 328.
  Improvement of, 239.
  In Maryland counties, 275.
  Kinds of, 78.
  Means of in-service training, 277.
  Personnel on the programs of, 78.
  Teacher participation in, 80.
  Topics for, 79.
  With teachers new to a grade, 328.
Teaching units, 341.
Technical training for supervisors:
  Amount of, 213.
  Nature of, 213.
Training for supervision:
  Based on supervisory duties and activities, 208.
  Courses available in colleges and universities, 218.
  General discussion of, 207.
Training of supervisors in:
  Birmingham, Ala., 243.
  Cleveland, Ohio, 254.
  Kerens, Texas, 258.
  Maryland counties, 259.
  Minneapolis, Minn., 245.
Training of teachers through supervision, 263.
Training supervisors in service:
  Activities of superintendents of schools in, 225.
  Programs in local school systems for, 228.
Types of supervisory organization:
  Coordinate system, 56.
  Dualistic system, 53.
  Line and staff, 54.
University of Chicago, professional training offered in supervision, 222.
Value of supervision:
  Evidences of, 98.
  In terms of judgments of individuals, 126.
  Measured by changes in pupil achievement, 99.
  Measured by changes in teaching and in the community, 118.
  Measured by changes in teaching procedures, 108.
Visiting days, 290.
Washington, D. C.:
  City institute program in, 274.
  Meetings of supervisory officers, 277.
  Salary schedule in, 294.
Westfield conferences, 279.
West Hartford, Conn., principal-supervisor club, 231.
Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence, 353.
  Barton elementary school, 94.
  Characteristics of a good plan of, 87.

YEARBOOKS

Third Yearbook, 1925— *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum.* 408 pp.	$2.00
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